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In 1967, the Institute for Advanced Study in Student Personnel Work in Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes decided to prepare a collaborative, interim textbook for their own use and that of future participants in the Institute. Working in teams of two or three, the members prepared the following chapters: (1) A philosophy for community college student personnel services; (2) The administration of student personnel services; (3) Characteristics of the community college student and implications for student personnel services; (4) Admissions and records; (5) Orientation to the community junior college; (6) Remedial services in the community college; (7) Counseling and guidance in the junior college; (8) Student activities in the junior college; (9) Student financial aid and placement services; (10) Research and evaluation in the junior college; (11) Student personnel services in the vocational-technical institute; (12) A study of disciplinary philosophy; and (13) Faculty advising. A schema is presented that may provide the starting point for developing an adequate faculty advising program. (HH)

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COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK

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FOREWORD

It has been only in this decade that the profession of student personnel has recognized that junior college and technical institute personnel workers have some very unique problems and responsibilities. Previously it was assumed that their work was nearly identical to the work of those in four year colleges and universities. Now it is recognized that since junior colleges have such varied educational programs, close community ties, and diversified student bodies, that the demands on their student personnel staffs are often very different than in other collegiate settings. As was recognized by the Carnegie Report, under the direction of Max Raines, these unique demands require new areas of research, program, and emphasis.

Although the field of junior college student personnel work is very new, the literature is developing well. Professional organizations, through their commissions, convention programs, and journals, are giving more and more attention to junior college and technical institute student personnel work. However, there is one obvious void. Presently there is no single text in the field.

This problem was clearly evident when the members of the NDEA Institute for Advanced Study in Student Personnel Work in Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes began their year's study in 1967. In order to partially fill this void for themselves and future institute participants, they took on the responsibility of constructing such a text. It was decided that the task would be best accomplished by having the institute participants work in groups of two or three on particular areas of student personnel work. Generally, the areas follow the outlining of C. C. Collins' in Junior College Student Personnel Programs: What They Are and What They Should Be, 1967. I would like to acknowledge this and state that it was a most helpful document.

Now the papers are all collected and reviewed by the editors at least a second time. For many the research was voluminous yet, I hope, gratifying. It is a volume for which many of the Institute participants will take pride. I know the editors do. Although there is a great deal of information on the forthcoming pages, this text should not be considered a definitive work. It has some obvious limitations, the most evident are editorial. But it does seem to have achieved its original purpose: To provide the 1967-1968 Institute participants, future Institute participants and Institute faculty with a workable text in junior college student personnel work. The responsibility for the more comprehensive and refined work is left to the noted national authorities in the field.

University of Missouri
Columbia, August 30, 1968

L. S. (Sandy) MacLean

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PART I

STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK
IN
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE
COMMUNITY AND JUNIOR COLLEGES

INTRODUCTION

R. O. Washington

Student personnel services in community colleges have undergone serious scrutiny during the last five years. This is due in some respect to the increased attention given student personnel services in higher education, on the one hand and to the growing stature of community colleges as part of the higher education enterprise on the other.

Although student personnel work is less than a century old, its role and function as an essential dimension of the educative process is clearly established. Student personnel service is looked upon as a very specialized part of the broader educative process. It exists for the purpose of furthering the education of students and proceeds on the premise that students must be organized into a "...community of students and nurtured in the collegiate way of life" (Mueller, 1961).

With the growing atmosphere of tension, mistrust and antagonism among students, faculty and administrators coupled with evidence of a mounting trend toward depersonalization in education, student personnel services are more necessary today than ever before.

Student personnel services in two year institutions are patterned for the most part after programs in other institutions of higher education. To the extent that personnel workers have not designed programs and models which take into account unique features of the two year institutions and its student population, student personnel services have been found "woefully inadequate"

(McConnell, 1965). When the evidence for such a finding is pitted against the functions which community colleges, in particular, are being called upon to perform for our society during the next decade, the mandate for student personnel workers becomes abudantly clear (Medsker, 1960; Matson, 1967).

Higgins and Thurston (1966) suggest what student personnel work will be like in the junior colleges in the years ahead will depend to a large extent on what is happening in our society. If this is true, then perhaps, what we know about the past can serve as a barometer for looking at the future.

The "open door" policy to which most community colleges are committed have opened new vistas for a larger segment of the American population. Thirty years ago, the college student was more likely to be characterized by his middle-class orientation; today he is most often described as seeking alternatives to the institutions of middle-class life. On the campus of a community college other dimensions such as heterogeneity, diversity, change and flexibility are more likely to be identified.

A more significant vantage point from which to view the community college student is the socio-political climate within which his goals and aspirations have been cultivated. The revolutionary effect of this climate has serious implications for the quality and scope of the educative process and has crucial implications for student personnel services. Yet, the most serious assessment of the status of student personnel services in community colleges point to the fact that they are not prepared to cope with the new imperatives placed upon them (McConnell, 1965).

What's even worse, some critics argue that little is being done to bridge the widening gap (Collins, 1966; Bassonos, 1965).

The characteristics of the community college student and the corresponding socio-political climate under which he pursues his education is fairly well documented (Colley, 1966; Rains, 1964; Medsker, 1960). The evidence suggests that the challenge to student personnel workers in the years ahead requires responsiveness to a new kind of student morality with new psychodynamics and a new ideology. O'Bannion (1967) poses the challenge in the form of a question:

> Can we create an environment for the student in which he can search out his identity, grapple with the problems of commitments, and become attracted to and involved with the health-engendering aspects of life?

The purpose of Part I is to explore ways in which student personnel services in community colleges can facilitate the goals and aspirations of the college student and contribute to his success in achieving the "health-engendering aspects of life."

It is important to recognize from the outset that the mandate given to the community college is a monumental one. As Medsker (1960) notes:

> No unit of American higher education is expected to serve such a diversity of purposes, to provide such a variety of educational instruments, or to distribute students among so many types of educational programs as the junior college.

To fulfill these tasks it must provide terminal programs; it must provide a transfer curricula for students who wish to complete undergraduate education in four year institutions; it must provide general education for the community it serves; it must provide a wide range of general and special courses in adult education and it must offer ancillary services which make the transition from high school or work to the community college as painless and as comfortable as possible. Such services must also aid students in making the final transition from the community college to four year institutions or to the world of work.

The community college is frequently referred to by writers as having unique capabilities. One determination of its uniqueness will be the degree to which it succeeds in providing opportunity for success in intellectual, academic, emotional and social learning for the broad cross-section of students entering its portals. Another will be how well it stands up to the test of stemming the educational tide from a focus upon more and more content mastery to a primary focus on learning to learn and a new focus upon education as a continuous process throughout life. As Robert Weber put it: "education must become more modular ... (and) man must go through life with the educational umbilical cord uncut" (1963). The nature and rate of technological change will make the traditional twelve, fourteen, or sixteen years of formal education a beginning step. As technology upgrades the skills and knowledge requirements of jobs, the worker will find life to be a continuing process of education in order to meet the attendant changes.

The community college therefore finds that it has a twofold educational commitment. It will have an increasing responsibility for introducing the citizen-worker to the world of work and it will have a major responsibility for helping him to upgrade his skills to adjust to technological changes.

In both instances the demands placed upon student personnel services call for a new kind of resourcefulness. The sad fact is, even though we do not at present fully know what constitutes this new set of skills and technics, we cannot afford to wait for answers. The increasing enrollments, the rapid social changes of increasingly impatient communities, and the imperatives of a technologically expanding society demand that we apply the best that is currently available even as we seek to improve.

Part I contains papers presented by members of the 1967-68 NDEA Institute for Advanced Study in Counseling and Guidance. These papers attempt to present a critical and scholarly review of the field of student personnel services in community colleges.

As a keynote, Wayne Farley and James Ihrig present in Chapter I the philosophical framework within which the review is attempted. The authors argue that the underlying strength of education in America is its sensitive response to societal needs which are tempered and defined by the philosophical concepts of democracy. They suggest that another strength of American education is its diversity of educational opportunity. Community colleges represent a new response to societal needs. Student personnel services in community colleges require a new kind of outlook and point of view which embrace society's mandate.

Chapter II by Robert Butler and Robert Taft examines the Administrative structure and process within which student personnel workers must operate. The authors call our attention to the fact that any administrative structure designed to serve student needs must take cognizance of the "human relations" elements and be structured on the philosophy of serving individual needs. In their words "...administrative structure must be organized for service rather than for neatness and convenience".

Hans Andrews and Anthony Baron in Chapter III call our attention to the demographic characteristics of the community college student and the implications for student personnel services. They advance the notion that student characteristics are potent forces in determining the nature of the junior college, it's educational programs, and its student personnel services.

Chapter IV provides a critical assessment of admissions, registration and record keeping practices. The authors, Robert Abbas, Eugene Hartmann and Samuel Woods propose that since admission's policies are based upon an "open door" philosophy in most community colleges, these institutions must develop procedures which are flexible enough to meet the needs of the community, rather than the development of a less flexible posture which defines higher education as a product or commodity which only a restricted proportion of individuals can profit and assimilate.

Chapter V by Jean Fulco, Sara Nevins and Betty Shoulders attempts to provide the reader with a general overview of the literature as it relates to the goals, philosophy and purposes of orientation programs. A second objective is to present an analysis of orientation procedures currently used in two year institutions from which a model for an effective orientation program can be constructed.

Remedial services are the focus of Chapter VI. In this chapter the authors, Norma Krueger, Georgia Adams, and Margie Young argue that since the "open door" policy decrees that we admit students with varying degrees of ability and preparation, organized remedial-type programs must be developed in order that the marginal student can benefit from today's educational opportunities.

James Aiken and Donald Killin in Chapter VII take the position that counseling and guidance is the heart of student personnel services. They contend that while other dimensions of student personnel services operate to assist students to reach sound decisions in matters of vocational choice, educational planning and personal relations, counseling and guidance must assume a key role in all these activities.

Chapter VIII deals with placement and financial aid. The authors, Donald Perigo and Frederick Fraizer suggest that the nature of the curricula and the characteristics of the student continue to give these services more importance as components of student personnel programs in two year institutions.

In Chapter IX, Clark Beck, Elmer Fangman and Thomas Malin present the argument that the important task for those in positions of leadership in student activity programs is to assess the extent to which the program provides activity opportunities for students to practice self-government and promote effective citizenship.

Chapter X by Neal Hartman and Robert Lembke deals with the task of research and evaluation. The authors take the position that the effectiveness of services offered by the student personnel program can be determined only by periodic evaluations designed to assess the extent to which student needs and institutional requirements are being met. The authors point out that the student personnel worker can make valuable contributions to the development of instruction and curriculum by systematically appraising the learning that is being provided. The authors argue that research and evaluation is a major function of student personnel services.

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A PHILOSOPHY FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES

by

Wayne Farley James Ihrig

A philosophic foundation of education

The theory of democracy proposes that power rests in the people who govern themselves. Thus, democracy is a form of government through which the people rule and which guarantees to the individual certain political and civil rights and liberties. Democracy is marked by freedom of enterprise in which every man is encouraged to follow the calling of his choice and is protected in the possession and enjoyment of the fruits of his labor. Democracy is characterized by great social mobility. Ideally, it is a society in which all artificial barriers are absent. Democracy is a way of life in which the individual is made the center of things and is encouraged to develop freely according to his nature. John Dewey wrote:

> The key-note of democracy as a way of life may be expressed, it seems to me, as the necessity for the participation of every mature human being in formation of the values that regulate the living of men together; which is necessary from the standpoint of both the general social welfare and the full development of human beings as individuals. . .
>
> The foundations of democracy is faith in the capacities of human nature; faith in human intelligence and in the power of pooled and cooperative experience. . . The democratic faith in equality is the faith that each

> individual shall have the chance and opportunity to contribute whatever he is capable of contributing and that the value of his contribution be decided by its place and function in the organized total of similar contributions, not on the basis of prior status of any kind whatever.

As a result of this basic faith in the importance of the individual,our country has from colonial time shouldered its responsibility to provide education for its citizens. A democratic society cannot exist wholesomely without well-educated citizens. When the nation was established, it seemed to the founding fathers that two or three years of formal education would be sufficient to teach the citizens reading and ciphering and thus guarantee the perpetuation of constitutional government. Even this small amount of formal education for all citizens in those days represented what seemed an impossibly idealistic goal. Yet learning, like avarice, grows by what it feeds on. And so each move to extend the learning of the American people has led to a demand for more educational opportunity and to the means to satisfy that demand. Public sentiment has demanded that we give higher education to each individual somewhat in proportion to his natural ability. The public has also demanded that we provide education beyond high school for every occupation to the extent that the expenditure can be justified in terms of the needs of the community, both economic and cultural. (Thornton, 1966)

Imperatives of a changing world

Being grounded in such democratic concepts the American system of education can be further characterized by the sensible response that it has made to the ever-changing society that it serves. Historically the public schools were brought about as a response to the need for an educated citizenry. The institutions of higher education that have developed in this country were a blend of influences from various countries tempered by a sensible response to the needs of a unique American society.

Today also, education is responding to the ever-changing needs of a modern society. In order to understand the response that education is making it is necessary to draw attention to some of these societal developments now taking place.

Venn (1964) has suggested that developments in the area of technology are delivering a challenge to the nations political, economic, social and educational institutions. This challenge is calling for a dramatic response on the part of American education. All levels of education, and particularly post-secondary education, are being called upon to meet the challenge by assuming greater responsibility for preparing men and women for entry into the changed and changing world of technological work. Unless far more and far better education on the semiprofessional, technical, and skilled levels is provided for a greater number of people, the national economy and social structure will suffer irreparable damage.

The results of these technological changes are far-reaching. Saylor (1966) has stated that no one in any society of today will live in the kind of world in which he was born, nor will he die in the kind of world in which he worked. Change in social institutions, industrial and business institutions, political institutions, and educational institutions has become a basic condition of life facing the youth of today.

Another of the societal developments that is having its effect upon American education is the changes that are taking place in the American work world.

Venn (1964) has discussed the change form manual labor to cognitive labor. The widespread effect of technology has led us into a state of work activity in which the emphasis on manipulative powers has shifted to emphasis on the cognitive powers. Employers are looking for people with more education and with more sophisticated skills to perform the more cognitive tasks that are being demanded.

Yet another change that is taking place in our society concerns itself with the people themselves. Not only is the population growing in numbers, but changes are also taking place within those numbers.

The shift from manipulative to cognitive work is reflected in the changes in the occupational distribution of the labor force. By 1975 it is projected that the number of white-collar jobs will exceed blue-collar jobs by forty-four percent. Semiskilled operatives have reached their highest proportion and have begun to decline. Among blue-collar workers only the skilled craftsmen have and are expected to maintain their proportion of the labor market. Among white-collar workers the biggest employment gains have been made by the highly educated and skilled groups. (Venn, 1964)

As stated above the population is growing in sheer numbers. It is anticipated that the population of the United States will reach 217 million by 1980. A significant part of this growth has taken place among college age youth. It has been projected that the college age population will increase from about 3,674,000 in 1965 to about 4,000,000 in 1975. (Havinghurst in Raines, 1965)

Projection from the U.S. Office of Education indicate that the numbers of college entrants in the United States will increase by fifty percent from 1963 to 1973.

Another factor involved in these population figures is the urbanization of the population. Thronton (1966) has said that economic opportunity pulls people from the farms toward the cities. Blocker (1965) points out that the population of this country has become more and more concentrated in urban areas, which in turn creates major social, economic, political, and educational problems. Not the least of these problems is the fact that increasing urbanization makes necessary higher levels of education among the people.

Only a few of the recent societal developments that are now taking place have been discussed here. These developments are vital in understanding the place and the role of the junior college in general and student personnel programs in particular. These developments for their own sake are important, but more important, is the effect that they are having, and will continue to have, upon the individuals for whom our student personnel programs are designed.

As developed thus far the basis of education in America is a sensible response to the societal needs as it is tempered and defined by the philosophic concepts of democracy. One of the greatest strengths of this educational system is its diversity of educational opportunity. Depending upon the student's interests, needs, and abilities; open to him are the Harvards, the Reeds, the state universities, the state colleges, the private colleges, the community colleges, and the technical institutes. The community college and the technical institutes are the fastest growing facet of this developing spectrum of higher education.

Havinghurst (Raines, 1965) has stated that one of the evolving functions of the community junior college is based upon the conviction that education beyond the high school should be available and free to a very large proportion of American youth, regardless of sex, racial, religious, cultural, or economic status.

> The goal of universal education beyond the high school is no more utopian than the goal of full citizenship for all Americans, for the first is becoming prerequisite to the second. If a person is adjudged incapable of growth toward a free mind today, he has been adjudged incapable of the dignity of full citizenship in a free society. That is a judgement which no American conscious of his ideals and traditions can likely make. (Educational Policies Commission, 1964)

By its efforts to extend educational opportunity to an ever-greater number of people, the community college has made a significant contribution to the attainment of this goal.

Before the turn of the century there were very few junior colleges in the United States. By 1967 the number of junior colleges in the United States had grown to 800. Even though the junior college movement has developed almost entirely during the 20th century the general idea is the result of centuries of philosophical and institutional struggle which has influenced all American education. The American line of educational development is an educational system with characteristics unlike any other nation.

During the history of our nation, education has developed in a variety of forms. Because of our unique culture, education developed differently in this country than in Europe. The American people broadened and democratized the traditional education given to us by the Europeans, so that more individuals might have an opportunity to secure post-secondary education. In this country we have also increasingly sought to make higher education both cultural and practical. The emphasis has been on making higher education more closely related to the daily concerns of the average American.

Through the years there developed a growing demand for a form of education that would make provisions for those persons whose occupational, social, and economic level brought them somewhat above the training within high school limits yet somewhat lower than that of the four-year college graduate. (Brick, 1963)

The junior college was begun as a result of our struggles to achieve equality of opportunity, while we attempted to expand the scope of higher education. The idea has taken root in America's cultural, economic and political heritage, and it has grown on such concepts as equal opportunity and the desire to eliminate financial, geographical and social barriers to higher education. (Brick, 1963)

The junior college movement was begun largely as an extension of the high school. These two additional years of high school were first generally liberal arts in nature and had the purpose of preparing the student to enter the university as a junior. Several university presidents including Henry P. Tappen of Michigan, William W. Folwell of Minnesota and William Rainey Harper of Chicago, encouraged the junior college movement. They believed that the two year liberal arts program could best be carried on by the high schools leaving the university as "purely universities." In 1900 the University of Chicago began to award the Associate of Arts degree to all students who completed successfully the junior college program of studies. (Thornton, 1966)

Many of the early junior colleges were private colleges and some four-year colleges reduced their programs to two years. Joliet Junior College in Joliet, Illinois, founded in 1901, is the oldest junior college still in operation. (Blocker, 1965)

During the period from 1920 until the end of the Second World War, 1945, the curriculum of junior colleges began changing from a strictly college preparatory, liberal arts program to a greatly expanded program including many terminal courses. For example, president William H. Snyder of Los Angeles Junior College in 1929 established fourteen terminal and semiprofessional curricula at his institution. (Brick, 1963)

It was considered important during this period for the junior college not to be considered just a vocational institution, but rather it was felt that it must have a well established group of classes which embraced both cultural and utilitarian subjects.

Also during this 1920 to 1945 period a significant contribution to junior college development was made by the American Association of Junior Colleges which adopted its name and constitution in Chicago on February 16-17, 1921. The purpose of the association was to define the junior college by creating standards and curricula, thus determining its position in relation to other parts of the educational system. The association began the continuous publication in 1930 of the Junior College Journal and the Junior College Directory.

Since 1945 the junior college has emerged out of the blend of various trends as an institution which strives to meet the needs of the people in the area it serves. Thus it is during this most recent period of junior college development that the junior college has come to be known in many areas as the community college. This term is descriptive because the junior college makes every effort to serve the community in which it is located. The junior colleges added adult education and community services as a result of drops in enrollment during World War II, and as a result of national emphasis on training for defense work. Both of the additions proved so valuable that they were continued. During recent times the junior colleges have expanded and taken on many new functions, but they still serve their original purpose of providing transfer programs for young people who wish to transfer to four-year institutions. The community college has become more diverse in defined functions, programs, clientele and philosophical bases than any other educational institution in existence. (Blocker, 1965; Thornton, 1966; Brick, 1963)

Fields (1962) has described the community college of today by identifying five of its characteristics.

1. The community college is democratic. Because of its low tuition and other costs, its geographic and social assessibility, its non-selective or open-door admission policies; the community college has popularized education for the largest number of people in American history.

2. The community college is comprehensive. In its

attempt to provide educational opportunity for a wide range of students with widely varying abilities, aptitudes, and interests; the community college has provided a comprehensive curriculum to meet the broad needs of its students.

3. The community college is community centered. The community college is locally supported and controlled. It makes wide use of community resources and attempts to serve the community through a wide range of community services including research and planning.

4. The community college is dedicated to life-long education. The community college provides programs for individuals of all ages and educational needs--both avocational and vocational.

5. The community college is adaptable. It is adaptable to individual differences among students, differences in communities, and the changing needs of society.

Foundations of student personnel work in the community college

Thus far we have discussed the philosophic foundations of American education and the influences of our modern society upon this educational system. We have also discussed the unique role and character of the community college, and its function within the broad range of American higher education.

A vital part of this unique institution is the enlightened program of student personnel services. Provision for those services that will help all students to take the fullest advantage of their educational opportunity has become one of the focal points of the community college.

Schaffer and Martinson (1966) have suggested that it is the primary goal of student personnel services to assist each person admitted to fully develop his potential through the effective and efficient use of the resources of that institution and to help in development of an individual's responsibility for his own growth and development.

The essential nature of student personnel services in community colleges is stated by the Committee of College Personnel of the American Council on Education statement entitled "The Student Personnel Point of View." (Committee on College Personnel, 1938)

> The student is thought of as a responsible participant in his own development and not as a passive recipient of an imprinted economic, political or religious doctrine, or vocational skill. As a responsible participant in the societal process of our American democracy, his full and balanced maturity is viewed as a major end-goal of education, and, as well, a necessary means to the fullest development of his fellow citizens. The realization of this objective--the full maturing of each student--cannot be attained without interest in and integrated efforts toward the development of each and every facet of his personality and potentialities.

Summary and conclusions

It is felt that the preceding concepts embody the important overall facets of the philosophy of student personnel work in the community college. Each of the programs that follow in this volume will present some rationale for their specific topic. It is felt by these writers that following the presentation of such a philosophy one should present some objectives that will serve as a springboard for the programs that are built on such a philosophy.

It is the responsibility of the student personnel services of the community college to : (1) provide those services which will assist in the self development of each student and promote the understanding of his own purposes for being in college in relation to his life goals; (2) help each student develop individual responsibility, self-discipline, and his abilities in realistic decision making; (3) provide through student government and other activities an opportunity to practice democratic living with both its rights and responsibilities and to learn to work effectively with others; (4) assist in providing an atmosphere which is conducive to academic achievement while providing maximum intellectual stimulation; (5) assist in providing opportunities for increasing skill in social interaction; (6) provide opportunities for increasing skill, knowledge and use of community resources; (7) provide an opportunity for every worthy student to complete his education; including financial assistance, housing, health services, and other aspects of his physical well-being as necessary; (8) provide the opportunity for faculty-student contacts outside the classroom as a means of encouraging respect for learning and an understanding of the approach to life's problems; (9) interpret the college's objectives, policies, rules and administration to students, faculty, alumni, and citizens in general; and to communicate student attitudes, opinions, and activities to the faculty and general public; (10) provide those services which promote the efficient use of records, data and information for the benefit of the students and the institution; and (11) help create an atmosphere of high morale and loyalty toward the institution among students, faculty, and the general public. (Schaffer, 1966; Matson, 1967)

To the extent that this philosophy is carried into the activities of the student personnel program and that the objectives of such a program are met; the student personnel program can be the pivot, the hub, the core around which the community college moves. Such a program provides the structure and creates the prevading atmosphere which enables the community college to uniquely label itself student centered. (Collins, 1967)

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THE ADMINISTRATION OF STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES

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The development of this report to this point has focused upon the rationale for student personnel services in the community junior college, and a description of the diversity within its student population. The task of administering personnel services to such a heterogeneous student body becomes increasingly complex as the burgeoning junior college strives to achieve its own special character within the framework of higher education. The demand for education of the masses requires technical-vocational programs, remedial programs, continuing education for the cultural growth of the entire community, as well as traditional pre-professional education. Such a wide range of educational services makes student personnel services an imperative. Collins (1967) suggests, "The student personnel program should be the pivot, the hub, the core around which the whole enterprise moves."

The logic of this section of the report focuses upon those issues and problems confronting those involved in the administration of student personnel services. No attempt will be made to provide the model organization because as S~~c~~haffer (Klopf, 1967) points out, "...each institution is unique to itself." Rather, the emphasis will be upon the general aspects of organization and procedure as these are influenced by the changes society brings upon our educational processes.

History and Philosophy of Student Personnel Services

Student personnel services as they are practiced today are not more than a century old. And it is to be pointed out that what originally began as administrative assistance to the president, has evolved into basically an educational undertaking to affect desired behavioral changes.

The student personnel point of view. This evolutionary process had its beginning with what Leonard (1956) refers to as concern for housing, discipline, activities, and certain simple forms of counseling. During the early part of the nineteenth century, specifically with the advent of Oberlin's coeducational action in 1833, there was evidence of some concern for the out-of-class life of students. According to Holmes (1939), the appointment of principals or preceptoresses by Oberlin to give special attention to female students' problems resulted in the ultimate appointment of a dean of women. Gibson (1964) referred to this period as the "protection-era" and points up the first usage of the specific title - Dean of Women - occurring at Swathmore in 1890.

It was not until 1938 that formal statements began to appear indicating a student personnel point of view. The Committee on College Personnel of the American Council on

Education first published their statement in 1938 and later revised it in 1949. For the most part, the basic assumptions incorporated in that paper are the foundation of student personnel services today.

According to Mueller (1961), there are three basic assumptions inherent within this student personnel point of view. They are:

(a) Individual differences are anticipated, and every student is recognized as unique.

(b) Each individual is to be treated as a functioning whole.

(c) The individual's current drives, interests, and needs are to be accepted as the most significant factor in developing a personnel program appropriate for any particular campus.

Thus, it is to be recognized that student personnel services have as their central concern the total development of human individuality. Whereas earlier concepts centered upon certain administrative tasks, today's personnel services are essentially concerned with the individual's learning process, both in and out of the classroom.

The community junior college. The community junior college is an unique American contribution to education. At the turn of the century there was an insignificant number of junior colleges in existence. During the year 1967, 79 new community junior colleges opened in the United States bringing the total number of junior colleges in existence to over 850. The words of Peter Drucker can well be appreciated; he said, "Within higher education the greatest growth will be in an entirely new and largely untried institution, the two year 'community college.'" (Drucker, 1965) Certainly such a phenomenal rate of growth provides opportunity to initiate educational practices which are relatively free from tradition.

The roots of the junior college movement are to be found in the activities of such institutions as the University of Chicago, the University of Minnesota, and the University of Michigan. Such men as Harper, Folwell, and Tappan were instrumental in bringing about the establishment of the junior college. (Thornton, 1966) Its primary mission then, during the 1850 to 1900 period, was a continuation of high school and further preparation for the university. With the expansion brought about by occupational programs in the 1920's, the formulation in 1921 of The American Association of Junior Colleges, and the increased emphasis upon the community college concept which stresses continuing education and community services, the junior college has emerged as an established element of American higher education.

It is within this historical framework that the community junior college is to be viewed as a kaleidoscopic reflection of educational technique. The theory of student personnel services, within such an educational setting, is that there needs of be a fusion of academic specialization with education for personal and social development. To slight either for the other is somewhat a denial of recognizing the 'person' in man and his total relationship to society. This point of view serves as a benchmark for the building of an administrative system which will best accomplish this purpose.

A Theory of Administration

There appears in education, particularly in the administrative aspect of education, some carry-over from the line-and-staff concepts of the military. The efficiency concepts resulting from the Industrial Revolution and the now classic Hawthorne studies have also influenced the practice of administration in education. Concern was voiced over this borrowing from business and attempting to apply the practices to education. Perhaps Callahan's (1962) publication, Education And The Cult Of Efficiency, best reveals the concern educators had regarding the so-called adoption of business administrative procedure.

As the administration of student personnel services is considered, the question of the most effective approach seems legitimate. To incorporate some of the more scientific principles, which have come to education from various sources, appears sensible from an economic and organizational perspective. The difficulty looms when it is recognized that administration involves people. The task is further complicated as these people are to be considered colleagues and are to be granted considerable flexibility to pursue the common goals. The complexity arises not so much from the inability of professionals to work together toward common goals, however true this may be in some instances,but rather the task of administration is influenced by the diverse make-up of people as individuals.

Mueller (1961) indicates that administration as such, and particularly as it relates to student personnel services, is more of an art than a science. According to her, this means one of two things: (1) that the principles and methods of administration must be studied but cannot be rigidly applied for the solution of all administrative problems because value judgements will sometimes be needed; or (2) that administration is a tightly organized and effective machine, but that like the automatic thinking machine it is only as good as the material given to it, the question asked of it —— therein lies the art.

To proceed further in developing a theoretical framework for the administration of student personnel services, it seems logical to discuss briefly what is meant by the term itself. Halpin (1958) defines administration as, "... the organizing and carrying out of a program of activities and functions to achieve desired and specified objectives." In as much as this relates to student personnel services, it seems that content (in the form of services) and methodology are both implied. The ultimate objective remains, of course, the behavioral changes which can be brought about within the student.

The administration of student personnel services is to be viewed as a composite of personal attributes of the administrator, along with the philosophical position of the institution and situational variables. Each seems to have an influence upon the frame of reference from which a student personnel administrator may operate.

Influential features in perspective. There need not be anything more said with respect to the philosophical position of the community junior college. It has been discussed previously and is summarized succinctly by Higgens and Thurston (Klopf,1966). They say, "Public junior colleges are not ivory-towered institutions but, by definition, community-oriented and attuned."

Those personal attributes which seem likely to have a significant affect upon administrative practice include such qualities as professional preparation, ability to relate interpersonally, self concept and one's use of authority, and an individual's life style. This listing is not intended to be exhaustive, but rather points to those specific areas considered significant in terms of the personal idiosyncracies of individuals. One can hardly question the need for technical competence, experience, and knowledge as it has to do with preparing one for administrative responsibility. Giving leadership in a way which is not offensive to colleagues, the ability to relate to others, mannerisms, one's personal life and the freedom it allows him to devote his energies to his work, are all factors which affect the practice of administrative responsibilities.

Situational variables are also a vital part of what might ultimately constitute administrative practice. Inner-city campuses as opposed to suburban settings would pose different operational policies. The make-up of the board, whether they are liberal or conservative, would determine much of the permissiveness, or lack of it,in campus activities. The predominance of a religion within a community, whether or not dormitories are a part of the campus, all of these variables and others would tend to influence administrative practice on a community junior college campus.

Against this backdrop, administration of student personnel services is viewed as a process of providing those activities, both academic and non-academic, which will prepare students according to their individual aspirations, to live a fuller, richer, more meaningful existence. This process has within it an inherent philosophy projected upon it by the institution, as well as factors of a situational and personal nature, which determine organization and structure.

Administrative Organization

The Structure of Student Personnel Administration. If student personnel services are to be effectively provided, the need for experienced, skillful professionals is apparent. During the early development of student personnel programs, the need for organization prompted the appointment of individuals whose function was to direct and control. Cowley (1937) states, in a very early writing, that phases of student personnel administration, under different names and titles, date back to the earliest universities of the middle ages. Even today there is a noticeable lack of uniformity in the titles used to indicate those who direct student personnel services. In any plan of organization, however, there is a definite need for an experienced, well-trained staff member to direct the program. Gibson (1964), in relation to titles, states "The magnitude and significance of student personnel problems indicates that the administrator for student affairs should have the title of dean or vice-president." Further, it is proposed that the staffing of a student personnel program should include: specialists in the areas of counseling, psychology, and general administration, and adequate clerical personnel to maintain records and to assist with office management and appointments.

The need for experienced professionals in student personnel programs has been established, but why the need for structure, organization, or for that matter, a student personnel division? Mueller (1961) points to several factors which seem to justify the need for careful consideration in planning for the organizational structure of student personnel programs. One of the major factors, according to Mueller, is the support which a work structure gives to the individual. The organization identifies the individual to himself as well as to his colleagues and other social contacts. An organization lends status, and the structure of organization identifies individual workers and determines the extent of their responsibilities. To communicate effectively with other organizational structures, a recognizable structure from which to work is important. Relations with faculty and students become more effecient with familiar channels provided by organizational structure. Further, organizational structure makes possible the training of graduate students as well as the training of new staff members. Assignment to specific areas of function is made possible by organizational structure. Finally, structure plays a most important part in motivation. With organization the following factors are facilitated: the incentive for work, the assuming of responsibility, the development of new skills, the discovery of new techniques, the receiving of praise and recognition, etc.

The formal organization, according to Blocker, et. al. (1965), is "any organization which has been set up to accomplish stated objectives requiring collective effort on the part of many individuals." Despite criticisms and problems which are inherent in any administrative structure, however small, it is apparent that there must be clearly defined lines of authority and responsibility and specialized personnel to fulfill administrative tasks. Formal organization, in any institution of higher education- including the junior college, comes into being through the board of control's policy manual, the faculty handbook, the student handbook, the college catalog, and the organizational chart.

An important question today in administrative structure is that of proper balance between centralization and decentralization. It is generally agreed that the extremes are equally bad. A case in point is the counseling function. Assuredly, a centralized bureau for specific types of counseling is needed. The faculty, however, must assume the responsibility for academic counseling or advising- students should have access to information from close faculty contacts when needs arise. Hopefully, faculty advisers will refer advisees to the counseling center for those specific counseling needs which lie beyond the scope of normal academic advising. The total staff, faculty and administration alike, must be stimulated to assume a share of the responsibility for student counseling. Caution must be taken, for where emphasis is placed on decentralization what is everyone's business, may possibly become no one's business. To circumvent this problem it seems highly desirable that specific individuals be assigned each of the functions and responsibilities which make up the framework of an adequate personnel program.

Administrative structure must be organized for service rather than for neatness or convenience (Blocker, et. al., 1965). Therefore, a slightly modified version of the traditional line-staff concept of organization is proposed. It must be recognized, however, that organization per se, will not solve the student personnel problems, but effective organization can be a means toward the achievement of desired goals. A strong authoritarian line relationship should be avoided. A personnel administrator who looks upon his staff as "underlings" rather than colleagues will lose the greatest effectiveness of this staff; both to himself and to the administration in general. A modified line-staff organization places innovation and planning on a staff or council relationship, with staff members functioning as colleagues rather than subordinates. Line relationships must not be vague in terms of "who is responsible for what." The line relationship in the modified plan of organization is indicative of responsibility rather than authority. Gibson (1964) has this to say about the line-staff relationship: "The whole galaxy of student personnel services is a staff function to the President and his line organization of the faculties; but management of the personnel functions is a line organization which can profit from unit control in the same way and for the reasons that prevail for the institution as a whole." Horizontal expansion which always goes back to the key administrator or the program is desirable- decision-making is close to both the student and the top coordinator. A profusion of administrators negates the initiative of both students and staff in their efforts to effect desirable policy changes.

An alternative to the modified line-staff organization is the council plan (Wrenn, 1951). This organizational approach, similar to the staff relationship, uses a type of group action- a possible disadvantage being the lack of identification of responsibility and authority. The chairman of the council of student personnel workers reports to the President; under this plan two advantages seem to evolve, namely: little opportunity is afforded for autocratic use of authority and an improvement in the communication function. It is recognized, however, that a centralized form of control is no more a guarantee of autocratic authority than a decentralized form of control is a guarantee of democratic proceedings. Today, despite the possible advantages of the council plan, very few personnel programs are organized specifically on the council plan. The modified line-staff organization, utilizing principles similar to the council plan, appears to be administratively more sound. Evidence of the lack of popularity of the strict council plan in student personnel administration is clear, although seldom, if ever, do pure line or pure staff structures exist.

For ultimate effectiveness, the administrator of student personnel services will undoubtedly utilize some sort of committee structure. This committee structure may include: a student personnel committee, an admissions committee, a housing committee, a student activities committee, etc. Committees function to develop effective communications, to develop broad participation in institutional affairs, and to utilize all available human resources. Since conflict is an inherent quality of any organization, committees may effective constructive change. The committee structure, hopefully, will provide avenues of communication for the development of consensus and group action.

Organizational structures tend to vary greatly from one institution to another. Student personnel services seldom comprise a single unified operation. Rather, there exists a number of relatively independent functions all contributing toward the achievement of a common goal- the educational, social, physical, and spiritual needs of the student. Organizational structures can be effective so long as the proper line-staff organization functions properly and coordination of services is at an optimum level. A functional organizational structure is depicted in Figure 1 on the following page. In the final analysis, the organizational structure of student personnel programs should be based on the particular needs and goals of the institution. The major concern is to ensure that the services provided will be of greatest benefit to the greatest number. There appears to be no one best plan of administrative structure. Therefore, each junior college must build its program and organizational structure upon the needs and interests of both the institution and the student.

In summary, it can be said that on any campus a stable and efficient structure for student personnel functions is imperative. Some centralization is necessary and some decentralization is equally important in order to distribute responsibility so that students' needs are adequately met. It naturally follows that there must be specific assignment of responsibilities for optimum implementation of the program. Formal organization defines and limits the responsibilities of the positions with the organization, therby creating a structure of power and authority as well as communication and unity of purpose. Differing environments and conditions on individual campuses justify marked departures from any one ideal organizational plan. The most effective program results when attention is given to policy-making utilizing the efforts of students, faculty, and administration alike, and when provision is made for effective execution and coordination of student personnel services.

Administrative Procedures

Basic Functions. Administration has been typically defined

FIGURE 1

A FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE FOR STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES

LEVEL 1
(Policy Making)

BOARD OF CONTROL

LEVEL 2
(Policy Recommendations
and Administrative
Implementation)

CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER

LEVEL 3

(Administrative Implementation,
Policy and Procedural Decisions)

STUDENT PERSONNEL DEAN OR VICE-
PRESIDENT OF STUDENT AFFAIRS

LEVEL 4
(Direct Program Implementation)

STUDENT PERSONNEL SPECIALISTS

School Relations

Testing

Financial Aids

Student Activities

Housing

Counseling

Foreign Student Advising

Placement

Evaluation

Admissions

Orientation

Discipline

Record-keeping

Student Center

Health Services

Remedial Services

Follow-up

Research

in terms of three processes- supervision, leadership, and personnel management. Supervision is concerned with the tactics of efficient and proper management of personnel. The main concern is with those aspects of administration which are aimed primarily at maintaining the efforts of personnel in line with the goals of administration. Many of the problems of supervision center upon internal inconsistencies within organizations. These problems arising from the supervisory function are those specifically related to subordination and proximity (distance or closeness) of the supervision.

Collins (1967) sees the basic student personnel functions within administrative organization as:

> "Providing administrative leadership to all facets of the student personnel program, preparing organizational patterns and job descriptions, preparing budgetary requests, and identifying and interpreting staffing needs"

The leadership function involves broad policy formulation and various strategies aimed at achievement of the organization's long-range goals. The importance of leadership is generally conceded. The fact remains, however, that the nature of leadership is conditioned by the nature of both the organization and society. The effective and successful leader must have courage, for when decisions are based exclusively on the welfare of the organization they may violate individual interests on the one hand and institutional values on the other.

The management of personnel falls into two distinct areas- evaluation and morale. A definite part of the organizational process is the assessment of workers. Lane, et. al. (1966-67) state that evaluation must be given high priority by the administrator and time must be alloted to the development of a program of evaluation with valid and realistic criteria. The dimensions of morale involve the maintenance of a sense of worth, satisfaction within the working environment, and compatibility between personal goals and organizational purposes. The importance of encouraging, or permitting, the personnel worker to maintain considerable freedom and control over the technical aspects of his job should not be over-looked. Morale is seen as being very important to the effectiveness of any organization.

The student personnel program may be viewed as a means of mediating between the needs or perceptions of the students and the pressures of the institution. It appears obvious, therefore, that the student personnel administrator is involved in a human relations task.

Mueller (1961) sees the personnel administrator's duties as: "planning, organizing, assembling resources, directing, and controlling." More specifically the duties appear to involve: the maintenance of communication, securing service from individuals, and the formulation of policies and purposes. Gibson (1964) is more complete in his explanation of the role of the administrator of personnel services. Areas under the supervision of the administrator are indicated as follows:

> "...the administering of testing and counseling programs which determine admission to the university; supervising or counseling students who live in residence halls; maintaining academic records for all students in the university; administering assistance and loan funds; cooperating with the medical staff on problems of health; providing systematic testing programs in connection with orientation and placement of students; organizing adequate guidance services; assisting students in planning wholesome cultural, recreational and social activities; helping students become effective leaders in managing their

> own organizations and activities while in the university; providing valuable experiences in preparation for adult citizenship; assisting all faculties of the university in programs of academic counseling and guidance; and assisting students in securing gainful employment both while in the university and, more especially, at the time of graduation." (page 120)

Categories or organizational functions of these many areas of student personnel services are incorporated in Figure 1- Level 4, Student Personnel Specialists.

In addition to the responsibility for the functions described, student personnel workers can, with effective leadership, facilitate progress toward other educational goals. These additional functions include: assistance in curriculum building, improvement of instruction, and the development of sound administrative policies.

In conclusion, it is apparent that the student personnel administrator is neither counselor nor teacher. But, if he is to be an effective administrator he will keep in mind the basic fact that he works with and for people. It is imperative that the personnel administrator understand the poolings of students, faculty members, and fellow personnel workers. Whatever else the personnel program may be, it must be realistic. The administrator may find his basic problem being that of selecting the most urgent neeeds of students among many. The personnel program should be based on the assumption that students, as responsible individuals, can offer a great deal if the campus "climate" is right. The major function of the administrator, therefore, is to create that proper "climate" for both students and faculty so that continuing educational growth may take place.

Coordination and Articulation. Coordination and articulation in student personnel programs may take many forms. It must exist between the services themselves, between personnel services and instruction, between personnel services and administrative functions, and between college and community services. Wrenn (1951) states that early attempts to satisfy the need for coordination and articulation in institutions of higher education resulted in two approaches. The first approach consisted merely of giving an existing administrative officer additional duties of "looking into" a situation or "seeing" that something was done about a particular situation. Secondly, the approach was to ask a committee to study the situation and make a report. Two primary weaknesses immediately present themselves. Not only is a basic philosophy of student personnel services missing, but one also notices the lack of involvment of trained student personnel workers. Meyer and Hannelly (1956) writing in the Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, state that "a tenable philosophy of education and, as a part of it, a tenable philosophy of student personnel services are the chief and most elementary necessities for coordination."

There must be effective planning and coordination by the personnel administrator and faculty members for the purpose of development of meaningful and logical educational programs for students. This envisions effective interaction among the deans of student and academic affairs, department chairmen, faculty, and student personnel workers. Student and faculty participation do much to enhance coordination and articulation; as does the appointment of faculty members to personnel committees. Students too, often participate in policy-making councils. Further, a need is seen for appropriate administrators to share in making student personnel decisions.

Arbuckle (1953), in an earlier writing, alluded to articulation with others within the campus environment. There is no reason, according to Arbuckle, why the administrative head should not rely on the assistance and counsel of both student and faculty committees and individual students and faculty members. Further, there is no reason why colleagues, such as the academic dean, should not be consulted. The effective and knowledgeable administrator will be equally concerned with the ideas and feelings of the college freshman, as well as the ideas and fellings of the president of the college. Personnel services are for students, and it is only logical that students should have a voice in the determination of policy and the management of these services. All decision-making committees should have student representation. If the objective is to develop a personnel program that contributes to the total educational experience of the students, then the administrator of personnel services should surely be influenced by the ideas and reactions of those individuals who experience them. Student needs must be surveyed and appraised periodically. Much can be accomplished here by way of developing a mutual feeling of trust between students, faculty, and administration alike.

Both Gibson (1964) and Blocker, et. al. (1965) attest to the importance of merging thought and action by academic personnel and student personnel workers. This makes possible cooperative action and improved support for both facets of student needs. It appears clear that close liason should be maintained between the student personnel administrator and the academic dean.

In summary, coordination means not only placing an administrator at the head of personnel services, but also refers to the development of appropriate relationships with other services and departments. Moreover, existing personnel services whould be coordinated to prevent overlap and wasted effort. Coordination is a series of processes dealing with human relations- more simply, a matter of getting people to work together, in various ways, toward a common goal.

Discipline. An area of particular concern to the student personnel administrator is the discipline of students. Discipline is not simply punishment. Various dictionary definitions include: "systematic training" and "the training of the mental, moral, and physical powers by instruction and exercise." Theories of discipline and control of behavior have undergone significant changes. Today's form of campus discipline attempts to develop mental and moral powers through instruction, exercise, and punishment. This approach promises to be far more effective than the welts raised by earlier forms of discipline on the campus.

Student personnel workers can no longer rely on their own moral standards or intuitions. The essence of more recent approaches to disciplinary matters is stated by Williamson (1961):

> "Discipline as organized student personnel work proceeds in an orderly fashion to help the individual search for an understanding of the causes of his misbehavior and for means of achieving his personality without continued disruptive and interfering expressions of his motivations."

Contemporary approaches to administrative structures for discipline appear to fall into five basic patterns. Authority may be vested in (1) a single personnel administrator, (2) student committees, (3) faculty committees, (4) a committee composed of both faculty and students, and (5) a committee composed of student personnel workers and students. No matter what administrative structure is utilized, the authority is delegated. Governing boards assign this authority to the President, who in turn further delegates the responsibility to others according to the pattern of administrative structure for dealing with student misbehavior. It must be noted that institutions of higher learning, including junior colleges, are increasingly moving toward student participation in behavior matters.

Important concepts to be reckoned with include: in loco parentis, fiduciary, and due process. With today's increasing student unrest and participation by the courts in cases involving student conduct, the student personnel administrator must be cognizant of a wide range of practices, aims, and objectives for the disciplinary process. Included are the rights of students, rehabilitation, disciplinary counseling, protection of both the student body and the institution from dangerous, immoral behavior, etc. It naturally follows that attention must be continually focused on the positive aspects of discipline.

In summary, campus discipline does not stop with enforcement and justification of rules and regulations through the subjugation of the offender. Rather, it aims at the maximum development of self-discipline so that the need for campus discipline is minimized. Discipline depends on the total campus climate- how do the students perceive the rules? Do they see the judicial system as fair and just? Discipline is the concern of all- student body, faculty, student personnel officers, and administration. Only through concern, cooperation, and effective communication by all, can discipline be successful and constructive.

For a more comprehensive view of the disciplinary process, the reader is referred to the section on discipline elsewhere in this volume.

In-Service Training. The authors are willing to risk the following suggestions becoming practice in those educational settings where such a program, or any portion thereof, is applicable. The lack of published programs in the area of in-service training prompts the facetious comment. The sincere concern is that it will either provoke the revealment of all programs worthy of note, or that it might inspire innovative adaptation of certain parts of these suggestions in those settings where they seem feasible.

It is not uncommon to find an in-service program being a somewhat nebulous, distasteful activity occurring at a very inopportune time; such as when the finals of the faculty golf tournament are scheduled, or from 3:30 P.M. to 5:30 P.M. on alternate Tuesdays, for "boot" faculty only. It is felt the image needs changing.

Certainly if this activity is of value, provision needs to be made for appropriate times enabling participation by leadership and recipients to be maximized. Suggestions as to when such activity is appropriate would vary within institutions, and would be inappropriate here. It is not inappropriate, however, to recommend the possibility of using a consultant (specialized in the particular area of concern); that an agenda be prepared and distributed to all participants in sufficient time in advance of the meeting; that minutes of all activity be kept for purposes of reference, inter-institutional correspondence, and research; that agenda planning be a total faculty involvement, that is each one contributes his area of concern for discussion purposes; and that a department be charged with the responsibility of "researching" all material relevant to the topic on the agenda for that meeting. It is further suggested that this department be one not directly concerned with the issue. Hopefully, this would do two things: provide a different perspective, and give that department a greater appreciation of the variables surrounding the issue.

It is to be emphasized that whatever effort is made to prepare faculty and staff to be of more effective worth, that this be a cooperative, integrated, college-wide undertaking. In this era, characterized by rapid expansion, mobility, and specialization, an institution will do well to cultivate "esprit de corps". This has particular relevance for the junior college which amasses its faculty from such diverse sources as industry, universities, graduate schools, and high schools.

The following recommendations are made with full appreciation, but little sympathetic understanding, that many institutions will be unable to adopt them. Seemingly, we in education find time to do that which we deem important. And in many instances, these appropriately important activities are to the advantage of the performer, and students can grow beards or seek psychedelic experience (the most recent activity in a series of attempts to gain some consideration and attention from those who deal with matters of consequence, like publishing and chasing grants).

The area which demands initial consideration is leadership.

The administrator who is willing to provide time, resources, consultants, and dynamic, vigorous promotion to in-service training will reap the dividends. If he feels as though his presence and participation are of little value, in all likelihood that will the the nature of the in-service program. There is no substitute for involvement.

Another recommendation would be that of providing time, teaching aids, clerical assistance, or whatever is deemed appropriate, in order that the staff may unreservedly involve themselves, This could take the form of a week or two of workshop prior to, or following the school session (with remuneration). It could involve a semester of teaching at less than full time for the person providing leadership throughout the year. Again, institutions are better aware of potential arrangements suitable to their setting and thus would adopt a form most appropriate to them.

While the aspect of college-wide involvement has been alluded to previously, it is further emphasized that whatever the program it should utilize and involve the entire college community. Better yet, wherever possible, inter-college participation should occur as well as intra-college involvement. Theoretically, this should expand the available resources and give a sense of familial concern and participation to the activity.

It is also recommended that independent study and research be emphasized for the expressed purpose of ascertaining more effective methods of meeting student needs. Research by some investigators indicate that the impact of higher education is somewhat limited insofar as it relates to influencing change within the student. Co-curricular activities seem to be more influential than academic esperience. It is suggested that emphasis be given to determining the best possible manner of influence and then utilizing those methods to the fullest. It is apparent that evaluation thus becomes as important as the in-service program itself.

All of the above recommendations are made recognizing that such programs will involve time, money, and attention, all of which are at a premium. Paucity of funds is not a good excuse. Financial support, from government resources if necessary, needs to be supplemented by grants from foundations and funds from other sources if such an activity receives the attention it merits. The competing non-academic demands of the junior college faculty member in particular are not good reasons either. Once the affect of good in-service programs is apparent, administrators and boards would make arrangements for these para-professional tasks, so demanding of educator's time, being someone else's responsibility.

The incessant expansion of knowledge in this era where change is the only constant, the recognition that the learning process is never complete, and that it might in fact begin with the termination of formal coursework, plus the heterogeneity of the junior college environment justifies the inclusion of in-service training programs in our educational programs. It may be that this area has been overlooked, or superficially treated, for far too long.

Legal Implications

The legal and governmental structure of education in this country has evolved from the commitment to the belief of the importance of the individual. Attempts to organize education date back to the Massachusetts Colony (Lane, et. al., 1966-67). At that time the responsibility for education rested with parents and the church. The voluntary nature of education, which prevailed in early colonial days, proved unsuccessful- so much so that a group of leaders in the Puritan Church sought help from the Massachusetts colonial legislature for assistance in making education compulsory. According to Cubberley (1919), the Massachusetts Law of 1642 was the first such enactment by a legislative body, representing the state in the English-speaking world, ordering that all children should be taught to read and write. It is interesting to note here that the 1642 law did not provide for the establishment of schools. In 1647 the famous "Old Deluder Act" expanded on the earlier law to include provisions for both teachers and schools. The pattern of early laws of the New England colonies advanced both the concept of education as a state function and the pattern of district control.

Participation in education by the federal government first began with the Ordinance of 1785. This Ordinance arose from a proposal in Congress that the new state of Ohio have reserved lots of ground in every township for the maintenance of public schools. Policy was also set by this Ordinance declaring that "religion, morality, and knowledge is necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind: schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged" (Lane, et. al., 1966-67). Later involvement by the federal government has included the Morrill Acts (land grants), the Smith-Hughes Act (vocational training), the National Defense Education Act, and the Elementary-Secondary Act.

Student personnel services have developed as a vital part of the administration of higher education; concerned mainly with students- both individually and in groups. The legal basis for these services is in the charter or corporate organization of colleges abd universities. To include these services in the total administrative program of higher education, a legal basis of necessity, had to be provided. This legal basis stems from legislative grants of power, constitutional grants of authority, policy of governing boards, and accepted custom recognized by the courts.

It is readily seen that student personnel relationships afford a multitude of circumstances from which legal problems can arise. Inept administrative handling of these circumstances may result in serious legal problems, as well as unfavorable publicity. With this in mind, one sees the vital role of record keeping and assessment in education. The legal implications in terms of the responsibilities of professional persons functioning in these areas is evident. Strahan (1966) cites the importance of this function in the following manner:

> "Good management of this informational system requires an increasingly proficient professional staff, and it must become aware of the legal implications which are involved as well as the matters of management, recordation, retrieval, and the things with which we have concerned ourselves in the past." (page 3)

In the area of records, a question arises as to the owner. These records are required to be kept either by statute, by the policy of a state agency, or by a policy of a governing board. Once these records are entered in an official file or cumulative record folder they become college property and as such- state property.

Legal problems may also arise in the area of discipline records. Administrators of student personnel services must be cognizant of the proper language to be used. Bakken (1961) states that the laws of slander and libel must be taken into consideration. Conditional privilege of communication results when the information is available only to those professionals with a special interest.

In the personnel relations area, the student is bound to conditions published in an official record and disseminated to the student body for reading. An example is the college catalogue. Included are both the institution's right to discipline and other academic policies. Today's disciplinary situations must be concerned with the student's rights of "due process." Courts of law have recently ruled that students must be given the right of "due process." Difficulties often arise in the process of search. The person responsible for the supervision of students should be the agent of search which is assumed to be exercised with reason. The need for providing proper professional judgment is a necessity in the area of the counseling function. Student personnel counselors must be prepared to make professional judgment on the student's ability to be responsible for his actions. Proper guidance must be provided and proper authorities (including parents) must be advised when the student's emotional state warrants such action.

In summary, the basic authority for student personnel services in state supported institutions comes from the state legislatures; whereas in the private colleges and universities, authority is derived from charters or corporate authorizations. Generally, legislatures delegate responsibility and authority to governing boards of the institutions, who are in turn charged with control, management, and operational functions. According to Bakken (1961):

> "There is adequate authority, either through legislation or court decisions, for the operation of all included student personnel services...This authority is granted directly through statutes or implied from the powers granted to governing boards by statute." (page 43)

Those in charge of administration of personnel services in junior colleges would do well to carefully examine their program and policies so that legal difficulties might be averted. Preventive counsel appears to prove much more desirable than later legal proceedings. Strahan (1966) clearly states that "Most legal problems in the student personnel area can be avoided if the program is properly organized and the policies in regard to this activity are carefully framed."

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CHARACTERISTICS OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENT AND IMPLICATIONS FOR STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES

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The national profiles of Medsker on student characteristics of community college students have been giving way to much more local research on characteristics of student bodies. The Carnegie Report (1965) showed that student personnel programs in community colleges around the country were very inadequately staffed and that the personnel lacked adequate training. Student personnel people were found to be less than adequately prepared to fully benefit from the variety of information that could be made available. The recommendations in the student personnel study offered various ways for staffing student personnel departments in community colleges by considering the size of the student body. These staffing recommendations, while being flexible to school size and staffing pattern choices, fail to offer a flexible approach to implementing the staffing of personnel departments based upon known student characteristics and needs of students in any given institution. This is the problem that will be approached in the present study. More specifically, the authors will attempt to answer the following questions:

(1) What are the "needs" that characterize community college students?

(2) How might these "needs" be implemented into a student personnel program tailored to meet local needs?

(3) What are the ways a student personnel department might obtain meaningful information on its student body characteristics and become cognizant of its needs?

Review of Literature

A review of the literature on community college student characteristics offers a potpourri of information. Reports have been published on community college student characteristics by individual institutions, by individuals and groups at conferences, symposiums, conventions, and many other groups.

Along with the variety of approaches taken in sampling student characteristics, one finds a multitude of information being sought in forms of demographic characteristics that attempt to understand the students' social and cultural background, psychological characteristics, academic and non-academic potential, goals and aspirations. However, there is one apparent gap in the majority of the evidence reported, and that is, how is this information used? What significance does the data have upon existing student personnel programs? Does the information accumulated affect the future planning of student personnel programs? If so, how? One gets the feeling, after reviewing the literature on student characteristics, that the accumulation of data has little significance on student personnel practices and policies.

In a letter sent to approximately 20 public community colleges that are considered to be progressive, innovative, and functional, no mention was given in response to the question of "What implications do student characteristics or needs have upon your student personnel offerings."

National Studies

On a national scale, Medsker's study of the community college student has been the most frequently referred to and most often quoted piece of research on community college student characteristics. Medsker's work is also corroborated by the work of others.

In a study of academic ability, (Project Talent) it was concluded that the community college aptitude distribution was much like that for high school students. The mean aptitude score is similar to that of high school students and considerably below the mean of four-year colleges (Cooley and Becker, 1966).

The community college has a greater concentration of students in the middle ranges of ability and fewer on the extremes. Hoyt's statistics conflict somewhat with those from Project Talent. He shows the community college student to be in the upper 35% of high school graduates or the same as the lower 30% of the four-year college students (1967).

The recent literature referring to the sex distribution within the two-year institutions show that they are attracting an equal number of men and women (Knolls and Medsker, 1964b). Medsker's earlier study showed a ratio of approximately three to one males to females attending two-year schools, but his sample included several technical institutions with predominately all male student bodies (Medsker, 1960).

Approximately fifty per cent of the community college students are under twenty-two years of age (Medsker, 1960). The age range runs from a low of sixteen up into the seventies (Thornton, 1964). The upper half of the range is accounted for by the fact that in a community college a large number of adult students attend the college on a part-time basis due to the accessibility of the college.

Although not borne out by empirical research, it is believed that the community college serves the minority groups. Medsker (1960) reports that recent evidence indicates that the community colleges attract students from less favored socio-economic groups but he does not include any statistics to indicate what percentage of these students actually come from minority groups.

A community college student is often a first-generation college student in a family. Statistics show that the fathers of these students have an occupational level that is not much different from that of high school students. In educational level, fifty per cent of the fathers have had at least some high school with thirty per cent having received some college training. The mothers show a somewhat higher level of education. Approximately twenty per cent of parents had no more than a grade school education. A further statistic shows that parents of women students had a higher educational level than male students. There is no difference in the educational level for transfer students than community college students in general (Medsker, 1965).

Regarding the cultural level, junior college students are similar to other student populations. Small groups are avid readers and collectors of books while a much larger group has little time or interest in reading (Medsker, 1965).

The reasons community college students give for attending the community college are low cost, closeness to home, and opportunity to work while attending school. Some seventy per cent report that they work and as an additional factor, twenty-three per cent of community college students are married (Medsker, 1960). Only a small percentage (approximately twenty-seven) indicate choosing the community because of its academic reputation (Baird, 1967).

In reference to future educational plans, most community college students enter with the intention of transferring to a four-year institution; however, few actually do (Thornton, 1964). Seventy-three percent have a Bachelor's degree as a goal while twenty-five per cent have aspirations above the Bachelor's degree (Hoyt, 1967). The past achievement of these students usually averages somewhat below their potential.

Vocational preparation is the number one college goal of community college students. Only twenty-five per cent emphasize the development of the intellect, and some four per cent indicate humanistic values as their goal (Hoyt, 1967).

Blocker, Plummer, and Richardson (1965) show how a student's perceptions can be of extreme value when studying the characteristics of community college students:

Post-High School Education

The community college student has little knowledge of what to expect and as a result hopes for the best in competition with his peers.

Personal and Peer-Group Identification

The community college student seeks visible personal identification as a college student--he too wants to be recognized as a college student along with others in his age group. He reflects this in his appearance, language, and daily routine.

Assertion of Maturity and Independence

These students have the same motivation toward independence from home and parents as do their peers in four-year institutions. Their activities on the campus and during off-campus hours bear this out.

They view the junior college environment as a place in which they can be treated as an adult. The community college acts or serves as a liberating process for adulthood.

Influence of Personality on Perception

The community college years are perceived of as a time when far reaching decisions about occupational choice, marriage, and personal development must be made.

The struggle for developing an adequate self-concept is going on at the same time these students are attempting to meet academic requirements. This makes for a complicated relationship between the college and its students.

An _unrealistic_ _identification_ to prestige occupations leads many to choose transfer programs when, in terms of aptitude and achievement, they ought to be in technical or vocational programs. Medsker (1960) found that only about thirty-two per cent actually completed the graduation requirements of the community college.

The community college student sees the college as a place to qualify himself for a vocation. His motivation is an outgrowth of the mass media produced by society.

Very little change takes place in student attitudes and behavior. Primarily, this is because the environment for the community college student remains much the same as during elementary and secondary school years (D'Amico and Prahl, 1959).

Discussion on the "Needs" That Characterize Community College Students--_The Day Student_

A community college must come to realize its moral obligation for research concerning its student body. It should determine what happens to these students while enrolled, their aspirations, causes for failure, and special needs. Once these variables are identified, work toward meeting these needs can get underway.

The community college enrollment represents a cross-section of the middle and lower-socio-economic group of an area population. These students apply to a community college with very little assurance or family "push" behind them. The community college student is often the first in a family to attempt education beyond the

the high school years. However, his aspirations are such that he will enroll in a program that points to the two-year transfer and eventually the baccalaureate degree. In some colleges up to eighty per cent will indicate transfer programs as their educational objective. On the other hand, high school academic background is often very weak in terms of preparation for many of the liberal arts programs. Many students also aspire to go into programs for which they have either very little or very weak academic preparation. Some of these students choose programs that call for a great deal more innate ability and capacity for learning than they may have. This type of student presents a strong need for services that have either been non-existent in his past, have been very weak, or if they have been present, they have failed to come to grips with his needs.

Approximately fifty per cent of community college freshmen coming directly from high school will have unrealistic or weak vocational goals in mind (Thornton, 1964). Such a high percentage points to very definite needs prior to enrollment in a community college. The pre-college counseling or orientation program must begin to deal more effectively in helping students make more realistic appraisals of themselves. These programs should be so designed that the emphasis will be on the fifty per cent who have unrealistic goals. It is obvious that the other fifty per cent of enrolling freshmen will have somewhat clearer perceptions of their abilities, strengths and weaknesses, and vocational choices.

It is rare to find a community college so staffed with student personnel workers that counselors can enjoy a realistic and workable student-counselor ratio of 300-1. It is therefore necessary that a well thought out approach to counseling be determined. The emphasis should be placed in the areas where the greatest needs appear. It is conceivable that a ratio of one counselor to 300 "undecided" curriculum students presents a great deal different situation than the same ratio of one counselor to 300 secondary and elementary education curriculum students. Counselors will have to be sensitive to students and examine the student's perception from the student's eyes. If this sensitivity is not developed, it is probable that any new attempts to deal with these students with misguided aspirations, lack of information about occupations, and lack of understanding of oneself, will only be a perpetuation of inadequate counseling that they received prior to enrollment in the community college. Medsker (1960) cites a "hard core" group of between twenty and thirty per cent of the students whose responses about counseling were either negative or neutral. Forty per cent of students in the study had very little understanding of the counseling services that were available and an even larger forty-eight per cent lacked the knowledge to give them an understanding of the capabilities of the counseling program.

Improved programs of articulation with high school counselors and teachers could help the community college student who presently is not being reached. Earlier identification of this student could give him a chance for a much clearer perception of himself and the community college programs and services available to him.

Once an effective and comprehensive counseling service is established, much of the gap between the knowledge of student needs and the satisfactory meeting of these needs will be bridged. By interpreting these needs and establishing an effective referral system to the proper services of the college, a stronger student personnel services program will evolve. The financial aids program, placement services, and student activities will better be able to obtain the effectiveness that they have lacked.

Paralleling these special problems of the community college students who may be misplaced, failing, or dropping out for financial or other reasons, is his inability to bring himself to voluntarily seek counseling. There appears to be very little, if any, difference between the student who continues in a program and those who drop out of college. Matson found no significant differences in the characteristics of the drop-out and the continuing student (Medsker, 1960). The counseling program will also have to develop methods to bridge these gaps of getting students to utilize services available as well as to discover the drop-out before he leaves. Aggressive methods of seeking out and finding these students for counseling will be of utmost importance in improving overall effectiveness of the personnel programs. This calls for creative thought and the sensitivity of the counselor that was mentioned earlier. Hoyt ties in the need of combining "hard-nosed" research with this type of creative thought in order to better meet the problems of students (Hoyt, 1965).

Discussion on the "Needs" That Characterize Community College Students--The Evening Student

The evening community college student may best represent the powerful changes that the American society is presently facing and will continue to face in the near future. The technological revolutions sweeping through the American social and economic institutions have had a strong influence on the number of adults attending college near their homes and jobs. A relatively significant percentage of from twenty-five to sixty per cent (Belleville Junior College) of the community college student body attends college during the evening hours.

Technological changes are eliminating many jobs and making others obsolete. Changes of this nature make job training and re-training a must for a large number of individuals, many of whom will be near middle-age (Raines, 1965). Today women are very definitely a large segment of our working population. Statistics show that single women work approximately forty years, married women without children about thirty and those with children an average of twenty-five years (U.S. Dept. of Labor, 1966-67). Many of these women will be entering the work-world in their thirties and forties. With the technological changes, population growth, and pressure on adults for more education, the community college will have a challenging and demanding obligation to provide these students with realistic and professional services for educational, vocational, and personal planning.

Basis for a Counseling Service

An adequate and professional counseling program is of utmost importance in meeting the needs of these evening students. Such a program demands energetic, intelligent, and strongly interested personnel. Hillway (1958) describes these counselors having a need to possess and display an optimistic outlook and philosophy. To develop an effective counseling program, it would be important for the college to conduct and compile research on its evening students. It should then be better able to direct a counseling program to reach out to meet the most obvious and pressing needs of the students.

Need for a Clear Perception of Self

Workers in the job field who are in need of new jobs or job retraining, as well as adults getting ready for the first time to enter the working world will display many doubts and anxieties about their abilities, interests, and chances of success.

Need for a Clearer Perception of Opportunities

Adults attending evening college very often have not been highly motivated about education in the past. Proper encouragement at this time may be all they need to realize the opportunities that exist for them at the community college.

Need for Vocational Preparation and Advancement

Nicholson conducted a survey on more than 5,000 adult students from community colleges, trade schools and day colleges. His findings pointed heavily to the economic-occupational reasons for class attendance. Some seventy-three per cent of the men and forty-five per cent of the women surveyed indicated financial considerations and need for occupational training as primary reasons for their attendance (Henry, 1956).

The Need to be Motivated

Many adults have had unfavorable educational experiences during the earlier years of their lives as was previously mentioned. They may not feel the pressure of society to further their education and training, but may need some outside force to get them off of dead-center in order to gain the motivation needed for success in their present endeavors.

The Need for Realism in Planning

Adults are not attending college full-time or for the same purposes as the college-age day students. They view the future as part of the present and need realistic goals that do not appear too far-ranged. With their many outside home, community, and job commitments, time is of the essence to them.

The Need for Immediate Gratification

The Flint study indicated that sixty-seven per cent of the adult students saw significant relationships between their present course work at the college and their current occupations (Blocker). The college degree is pretty remote to a part-time adult student. He must find satisfaction in his "present" course work or in shorter range objectives. As indicated in the Flint study, his education must somehow be related to and be adjusted to his present concerns.

Further Perspectives on the Evening College Student

The educational objectives of twenty-two per cent of evening college students is not clearly defined. Forty-three per cent of these students indicated dissatisfaction with their current employment and some eighty-five per cent indicate they attend college to obtain a better job. The stability of the evening college student's educational objectives has been questioned by those who look at the result of a survey which indicated that twenty-nine per cent of the group indicated a need for educational advisement and some forty-two per cent pointed to the need for some type of guidance service or clinic help (Blocker).

Justification for developing evening student personnel services becomes readily apparent to anyone who comes in contact with these students of the community college.

Looking Beyond the Statistics:
A Hypothetical Illustration

Student characteristics have little value to a college if they are carefully gathered from various sources, summarized and than left to gather dust. A keen observer will be able to take a set of characteristics and start an analysis that will go well beyond the basic data at hand. Chart 1 below shows the various reasons for choice of college by students from three different community college environmental settings.

Chart 1: Reason for Choice
of College

College	Social Activities	Close to Home	Financial
College A (Suburban)	48%	35%	17%
College B (Inner-City)	10%	31%	59%
College C (Rural)	18%	55%	27%

From the following hypothetical illustration, note that College A (Suburban) shows a total of forty-eight per cent of its students as having listed social activities as their main reason for choice. This percentage drops to ten per cent and eighteen per cent for the inner-city and rural colleges respectively. Such a statistic might be interpreted for College A as representing a substantial need to develop a more comprehensive student activities program than Colleges B and C. The needs of these students to participate in meaningful leadership activities, clubs, and other campus activities should be further explored before the student activities program is developed by the college personnel.

College B (Inner-City) shows that financial reasons far exceed the other categories of choice for its students in their reasons for attendance. Such a statistic surely has strong implications for financial aid programs. It is very possible that not very many of the fifty-nine per cent could attend any college without some form of financial assistance. A financial aid program in College B will surely have to be more richly developed and active than in either colleges A or C if it is to help low income students attend college and to keep them working toward their educational objectives once they enroll.

College C had fifty-five per cent of its students indicate a closeness to home as the leading factor in their choice. This may have implications for developing a wide knowledge of vocational opportunities in the surrounding area as well as giving an indication that many of these rural students will be working on family farms or in local industry. An activities program may have little meaning to these students while a placement service and the establishment of co-operative programs with industry or the agricultural community may be of high importance to the needs of such students.

Chart 2 shows an analysis of three major categories of program choices for the students from the three colleges (hypothetical in this illustration). Special notice should be made of the large percentages of undecided students in colleges B and C. The rationale for a counseling program might well be supported by the following facts:

(1) Undecided students are most apt to drop out due to lack of motivation;

(2) Many of the general studies and liberal arts students should be placed in the undecided category.

Chart 2: Choice of Programs of Study

College	Pre-Professional	Tech.,Bus. Terminal	Undecided General Studies
College A (Suburban)	60%	25%	15%
College B (Inner-City)	42%	13%	45%
College C (Rural)	37%	.27%	36%

By providing counselor-counselee ratios of 1 to 150-260, these counselors will be able to give many more hours of personal attention to these students. The success of the low counseling ratios should and must be supported with research projects if the administration is going to lend its support to financing the additional personnel that will be needed.

The evening student enrollment in a community college has been all but overlooked in the providing of student personnel services. Chart 3 shows the three community college evening division enrollment percentages in relation to the total college enrollment. It is very possible that a lack of financial resources eliminates large numbers of adults in the inner-city area who may aspire to some sort of program at the community college. The theory that because a person is working he doesn't need assistance is antiquated (Thompson, 1967). It is becoming a real task for many to attend college with the increases in tuition and books. Such a need, while not readily apparent from simple statistics, might well be met by having an adequate financial aids program in terms of small scholarship or short-term and long-term loans for evening students. Kellogg Community College awarded three thirty-three dollar scholarships and over $280.00 broken up into short-term loans of from $15.00 -$50.00 during the first semester that a financial aids program was available for evening students.

Chart 3:
Evening Students
(Percentage of the total college enrollment)

College A (Suburban)	40%
College B (Inner-City)	31%
College C (Rural)	55%

With the advent of the computer, the possibilities of exploring student populations are unlimited. In an attempt to provide some guidelines for investigating student populations through the use of the computer, the following innovative techniques are presented.

Innovations For Studying Students

A Computer Simulation Vehicle for Educational Systems

Cogwell describes the characteristics and construction of a computer simulation model for simulating behavior of students and staff. The model provides a design, based upon systems analysis and computer simulation techniques, which would integrate more fully the various factors (school, faculty, students, instructional plans) that are included in the educational process.

A description of the model and plans for simulation of selected schools is also provided.

The Development of a Student Accounting System

Anderson in a study designed to develop, demonstrate, and evaluate the feasibility of using the computer to perform statistical studies on student populations, used previously collected information plus additional information collected from the students via an "IBM" answer sheet. A central bank was established for the accumulation and storage of student information. It included:

1. The students' academic records prior to enrollment;
2. Results of tests; and
3. Selected demographic information.

The results showed that a satisfactory system for statistical studies could be developed, but the expense involved in gathering and processing student information required careful decisions regarding what and how frequently student information would be sought.

The Computer in Educational Research and Its Implications for the Counselor

Havens emphasizes the need for local research on student populations, and recommends the use of the electronic computer. He suggests a procedure called the "search technique," a process whereby a number of variables like intelligence, socio-economic status, values, and opinions are fed into the computer and tested to determine the relationships which exist. The results should enable the counselor to more effectively understand and plan with various individuals by providing a sounder empirical base from which to work.

Institutional Studies of Junior College Students

Thompson suggests that while currently reported research of the "institutional type" is useful; with a little more attention, planning, and sophistication, researchers could broaden their scope and increase their return.

Three worthwhile suggestions are offered:

1. Normative Studies--defining groups in the same way at more than one institution enables the schools involved to make comparative analyses. For little additional cost, several junior colleges could agree on a common coding system and procedures for data collection in their respective institutions. After comparative studies are accumulated for a number of junior colleges, the studies

could be assembled to offer valid normative data.

2. A common procedure employed in attempting to evaluate the significance or impact of experiences offered students while in school, is the follow-up study. The method of collecting data is generally a mailed questionnaire; the self-selection aspect of this voluntary approach can severely distort the results. More reliable information may be attained if a truly random-sample of 100 students is selected and pursued until a 95 per cent return is achieved, than would be the case if 2,000 questionnaires were mailed and the results were derived from the self-selected sample.

3. In order to determine the effect a particular program had upon the student, the following technique for collecting data could be adopted:

For purposes of illustration assume we are asking 10 multiple-choice questions about the value of a summer orientation program.

A) Assign each question a number.

B) Print the questions on "IBM" cards set-up for mark-sensing.

C) If N=1,000, produce 100 cards for each question.

D) Punch the question number and a random number into each card.

E) Sort the 1,000 cards for numerical sequence on the random number field. The questions are in random order, and it makes no difference which student gets which card.

F) Require each student to answer one question as part of the registration procedure.

G) Process responses on a card punch machine.

H) Sort the cards on the question number field so that all cards containing the same question are in the same group.

I) Tally the responses to each question on a card sorter equipped with a counting device.

Variations of this method are possible: expanding the number of questions asked, requesting demographic information, etc. Research can be performed on specific variables or combinations of variables. Because of the method used in randomizing, relatively few students can be used in the sample and inferences can be made regarding the population. Statistical assumptions have also been met which allow tests of significance between group means.

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ADMISSIONS AND RECORDS

Robert Abbas Eugene Hartmann Samuel Wood

Admissions

The emphasis society places on the value of a college education is a factor in the decision making process of the high school senior. He must decide what vocational choices are appropriate for him and where he can get the training necessary to prepare him for this occupation.

A major dilemma follows the previous two decisions. The student must be able to meet the admissions criteria set up by the school from which he plans to obtain his formal training. By admission to a school, the writers mean the acceptance of a candidate for enrollment (AACRAO, 1962). The diversity of admissions policies is very much in evidence when you compare the "open-door" policy of the community junior college with the highly selective standards of the prestige schools.

If we look at the two types of admissions, "open-door" and selective, we find some facets that are not seen at first glance. The admissions procedures most often involve looking at the student's high school rank, the four year high school average, and the results on the college admissions tests.

The first question might be, why the diversity? For many schools the size of the facilities is the dominant factor in limiting enrollment; for other schools, the restrictive curriculum and fierce competition maintain a stable enrollment; the philosophy of the school (e.g. religion, all girl, finishing school, etc.) helps dictate a certain selectivity in the admission procedure; or as in the case of the community college, the philosophy of the community dictates the admissions policy.

A second question might be, is one admissions policy better than another? Each school decides what its philosophy is and then attempts to enroll students who fit into this philosophy. The selective admissions policy is used to enroll only students who will have an excellent chance to succeed. In theory, this would assume that if only good students enroll, a higher percentage should graduate then would be expected with non-selective admissions policies. It is economically inefficient to enroll students who will not succeed.

Hills (1967) suggests that this may not be the case because grading standards of a faculty may float with the admissions tide. There is a tendency for the faculty to give certain proportions of high and low grades, regardless of how capable the students are, or how well they perform.

Another problem in introducing selective admissions into a private or public institution is to decide who to admit, who to reject, and who to hold in abeyance until all applications have been received. To solve this problem the school must set the level of academic promise in line with the philosophy of the school so anyone who meets or exceeds this level can be accepted. Some educators feel that by selecting on academic promise you are not solving the problem. Wescoe (1963) states, "academic selection processes automatically discriminate against the child whose parents are not fond of reading, against the child from a large family, against the child from a small high school, against the farmer's child, and the child born in an underpriveleged minority."

Gough (1965) questions the use of the high school rank and college entrance test batteries as criteria for selectivity. He says "Aptitude testing overemphasizes convergent thinking, unrealistically limited psychological traits, and problem solving at the expense of problem defining." Present admissions standards underemphasize nonintellectual determinants of achievement such as styles of perception or preference for complexity. They overemphasize one path to achievement, creativity, and independence, i.e. high grades and high test scores. Hills (1967) summarizes selective admissions when he says, "there is nothing unfair about a college being selective in its admission of students. However, the selection should be chosen for academic and educational reasons rather than economic or personal reasons."

The junior college or community college is typically an open-door college. According to Fields, (1962) "this policy is based on the educational philosophy that the community college should develop a program to meet the needs of youth and adults of the community, rather than on the less flexible attitude that higher education is a defined product or commodity which only a restricted proportion of individuals can profit from or assimilate."

Everyone is entitled to fail if he wishes to attempt to perform at a level incongruent with his measured abilities. Wescoe (1963) discusses the intangibles that so often make success out of sure failure. "We have no tests to measure determination, motivation and desire. In getting a college education these things are all important. The best predictor of success in college is the first year in college."

Since educational measuring sticks are not perfect predictors of whether or not students will succeed in college, the open door policy allows the student to try to compete for a college education even though the predictors of college success do not portend a very good chance for success. In the majority of schools that advocate this policy, the student is allowed to attend but may be restricted as to what course or courses he may be allowed to enroll. Medsker (1960) states, "most local public two-year junior or community colleges generally admit any high school graduate, and even that requirement is often waived for students over eighteen. But, although practically all students may be admitted to the college, not all are admitted to certain courses or even to certain curricula unless they meet prescribed requirements."

A school which has the open-door policy, has a student body which is characterized primarily by the range and variety of its abilities, interests and goals. Administratively this causes several problems. Remediation in the areas of English and mathematics is a need that must be dealt with by the community college. A decision must be made as to whether or not courses in these areas should be made available. If they are offered, then some criteria must be selected to determine who should be allowed or required to enroll. Another problem creeps in when you have to determine the length of time you can allow a junior college student to enroll in the course.

Lombardi (1964) cites these problems and one which is probably more important when he poses this question, "How can the administrator persuade his faculty to accept responsibility for the meeting of needs of the low ability students? They fear that poor students will lower the academic standards." Teachers of academic areas feel that the transfer function is the most important, and the teachers of the applied areas are of the opinion that the terminal function should take precedence. If the philosophy of the open-door college is to be upheld, the faculty must have an attitude that is conducive to making the college an on-going institution. The classes are going to be heterogeneous in nature. The faculty must also realize the value and necessity of courses which are needed for a particular program but probably taught in an area unfamiliar to the individual instructor.

The effects of the open-door policy summarizes the philosophy of the junior or community college: (1) it makes necessary a comprehensive instructional program; (2) it causes the school to have a wide range of abilities among its students; (3) it increases the need for guidance services.

Articulation

For the purpose of this paper, articulation is defined as the extent to which the many elements of the educational program are interrelated and interdependent (AACRAO, 1962). Articulation is extremely important when new colleges open, when schools change admissions policies, when new programs are added or dropped, and whenever a change in the status quo takes place. From the previous statement we can infer that articulation is an on-going phase of the college program.

A basic concern of the student personnel worker with regard to pre-college counseling or articulation is the quality of information provided prospective students, parents, and high school counselors. According to S~~c~~ha~~e~~ffer and Martinson (1966) colleges and universities need a positive, helpful relationship with high school principals and student counselors, to assist not only in interpreting college to young students, but also in supplying the institution information about their students.

Misrepresentation frequently occurs in college publications when social activities are glorified, or services are described which only exist in the minds of the college administrators. The objectives are generally couched in such language that it is doubtful whether they mean much to prospective students. Dyer (1965) says that even the word 'admission' has different connotations to different people. Colleges must therefore make their descriptive material meaningful and comprehensive.

To summarize this area, Dillenbeck (1963) says, "There is an urgent need for more adequate and more readily available information about educational opportunities. College information today is scattered throughout a bewildering mass of catalogues, directories, viewbooks, leaflets and how-to-do-it manuals. Much of the factual material is liberally mixed with opinion, exhortation and fiction, and often is written by a journalist with an eye to the marketplace." Students only have a freedom of choice to the extent that they have adequate information about the alternatives available to them.

The role of the college in pre-college articulation should be reviewed by every school to determine the effectiveness of its program. The old idea that we only talk to students who are currently finishing their high school education is out of step with todays thinking. Walton (1965) states, "there is no such thing today as the point of transition between high school and college. School and college transition is better described as a 'line', and each student is at his own place on the continuum."

Using this idea as a base, it appears that counselors should be discussing college with students beginning at the junior high school level. A close working relationship between the college admissions officer and the school counselor is imperative. The counselor knows the student, and the admissions officer knows the college; therefore, intercommunications is needed for the benefit of the student.

Raines, (1965) in the Carnegie Report, gives a rationale for the pre-college information function when he says:

> As much as possible must be done prior to actual enrollment to enable the prospective student to become familiar with the facilities, the student personnel services, and the curricular offerings of the institution. Pre-college informational services should be designed to encourage the prospective student to consider post high school education, to become familiar with the opportunities of the specific college, to help him understand the requirements for admission and entrance to the college and its particular programs, and to enable him to reach decisions and to develop proper attitudes about college attendance.

The information made available to the student is often voluminous and varied. The first bit of information about a college that a student comes in contact with is usually a glossy brochure filled with pictures of the physical facilities and the social activities. This brochure is designed to attract attention to the school through non-academic channels.

A college catalogue is normally the next piece of literature looked at by the student. College catalogues are at the very least confusing and, more often than not, misleading. It appears that there are many courses listed in the catalogue which are never taught. Thus, a program of interest to a particular individual may not be available because the courses necessary to complete the program are not offered due to a lack of facilities, staff, or student interest. Another problem with college catalogues is the assumption that they are written very clearly, while in fact they use language that is not understood by the average high school student. For example, the catalogue will talk of grade point averages, credits, seminars, etc., when these terms are often meaningless to the readers. Care also should be made when indicating the requirements for a particular degree or terminal program so the reader can judge whether he really has the opportunity to take an elective course, or whether the elective must in fact be a prerequisite for a future course.

The first contact students have with admissions officers is either at an individual conference during their senior year or group meetings often called College Days/Nights. Banks (1964) raises the issue as to whether these meetings have a real value. Administrators like them because this meeting can handle the college people with only one interruption of their school schedule. However, inviting schools for which the students have indicated very little interest and requiring students who do not plan on attending college to participate, is evidence of waste of time and effort. He continues, "These days/nights force the college representative to sell his institution and as such cast an unfavorable light upon the dignity of the teaching profession. This program is anti-climactic if a good guidance program exists."

Although these programs are open to question as to their value, they do allow a college representative an opportunity to answer specific questions about his institution. At this type of meeting, it is very important that the following information is forthcoming: (1) the admissions procedure to follow for admittance to the institution; (2) the college entrance tests that are necessary, if this is appropriate; (3) specific admission requirements to courses or programs if this is applicable; (4) the cost of attending college and the financial aid available; (5) an honest appraisal of the courses and the types of programs available, and whether or not they are terminal and/or lead to a degree; (6) the type and variety of non-academic activities available on campus; and (7) a personal invitation to the student to visit the campus and see the school in operation.

Another important aspect of the admissions process is a visit to the campus which should include an organized tour of the physical facilities emphasizing those areas of high student interest. Prospective students should be encouraged to talk to students who are attending the college in an attempt to learn their opinion of the school. If at all possible, the visit should be made while classes are in session to give a more accurate picture of the institution. This phase of high school articulation should be under the supervision of the person in charge of new student orientation.

While the student is on the campus, he should sit down with a member of the admissions staff in order that any particular questions he may have regarding his specific may be answered. If a school has the research data available, the student should be informed of the chances for success in his chosen field.

The student at this juncture should be in a position to determine whether this particular college is the one he wishes to attend. The reward in high school articulation is to have a student who has completed a program state that the school was not misrepresented by any member of the staff.

Survey of College Catalogues

Selection of students to attend an institution is of concern to each individual community college. It has been stated (Shaffer and Martinson, 1966) that the college administrator must convey to the student an understanding of the selection procedures and the admissions requirements of his particular institution. The most commonly used technique for achieving this is the publication of a statement of the requirements and procedures as a part of the general catalogue of the community college. It is through this published statement that an a attempt is made to inform students, parents, counselors, and other interested citizens.

The fact that such a statement is widely circulated and used by a large segment of the population would indicate a need for thoroughness and at the same time simplicity. Previous investigators (Mueller, 1961, Shaffer and Martinson, 1966) have indicated three general sources of information used in selecting students for admission: (1) high school record including rank, (2) results of tests required by the college or taken voluntarily to strengthen the application, and (3) personal data taken from the application, recommendations, references, and in some cases by an interview. The authors made an examination of 75 community college catalogues with the purpose of determining procedures and requirements stated by a sample of community colleges. The sample represented 16 states and included 54 public and 21 private community colleges.

Table 1 summarizes the major parts of the statements of the procedures and requirements for admission. Within certain areas of the table, additional explanation will be needed to further clarify the data.

Unconditional admission was a phrase used by 42 of the public institutions and 18 of the private institutions. It required high school graduation. It indicated acceptance of the student who met the prescribed secondary school preparation for admission to the college.

It did not insure the student would be able to pursue the curriculum of his choice. It would still be necessary for the student to meet the specific curriculum requirements.

Table 1
Summary of Admissions Statements taken from
Catalogs of 75 Selected Community Colleges

	Public	Private
Unconditional Acceptance High School Graduation	42	18
Required Preadmissions Test	46	15
GED Accepted	27	4
Special Students Accepted	32	3
Health Form Required	30	10
Deposit Required	20	11
Recommendation Required	16	13

The satisfactory completion of the General Educational Development Test was acceptable and so stated by 31 colleges. This is not to imply that others would not accept it, but they did not specifically indicate this. Further provision was made for non-high school graduates with the category of special student. To be classified as a special student, the applicant had to be 21 years of age. As is shown in Table 1, 32 community colleges make a statement concerning the special student. It would be of interest to know how many of the colleges whose catalogues were reviewed and no mention of the special student was made, nevertheless make provision for them on an individual basis.

The use of standardized tests by most junior colleges with entering freshmen was reported by Medsker (1960). A total of 61 out of 75 required test results be reported to the college as part of the application. The most commonly mentioned tests were the American College

Tests and the College Entrance Examination Boards.

Deposits were required by 31 community colleges. This was a nonrefundable sum not applied to fees or tuition. It covered a range from $5.00 to $30.00 with the majority requiring $10.00.

The general impression of the authors was that the admissions statements were not readable for the individual not familiar with the college. The statements appeared most useful to college personnel. They would best serve a public which was already knowledgeable about the requirements. The statements did not adequately detail the requirements and follow this with an outline of the application procedures. The steps to be followed were not in general stated in such a way as to answer the questions of the prospective student without considerable interpretation by the student.

Records

The permanent record is an essential and important aspect of the student personnel services in any institution of higher education. It is an inclusive summary of the student's over-all academic achievement and is usually maintained in the office of the registrar or some other comparable official. According to Thornton (1966) "the keeping of accurate records is one of the primary responsibilities of the student personnel service. Every student expects his college to maintain a complete and up-to-date record of his scholarly achievement and to be able to provide intelligible copies on short notice at his request."

Academic records are usually produced by some mechanical process or automated machine. Increasingly, these permanent records are being so designed so that by some type of photo process the reproductions can be used as official transcripts of the student's academic record. If this photo reproduction procedure is to be followed, then the permanent record forms should be planned so as to include any information generally desired by those who would request the transcripts. Although this type of transcript reproduction has been more common to the larger institutions, it is now being utilized more frequently in the smaller colleges as well as the junior college setting.

According to the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers (1965), the transcript in contrast to the permanent record card, "is a copy of the complete, unabridged educational record of an officially enrolled student issued for the purpose of communicating information about the student to another institution, to an agency, or to an individual." This transcript, if it is official, should carry the signature of the proper certifying officer and should also bear the seal of the institution. The data included on an official transcript would, of necessity, follow the format of the permanent record card quite closely.

In most cases, it is the registrar who is responsible for the maintenance and reproduction of these records. Whatever method is used, the record form itself should be arranged so as to expedite recording, checking, advising, and transcript reproduction.

Generally speaking, there is little agreement to what should be included in a student's record card. An outline of the significant items which might be incorporated into an adequate permanent record card is presented in a handbook published by the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers (1965). A modification of this outline prepared by the authors is as follows:

I. IDENTIFICATION OF THE INSTITUTION

1. Name
2. Address

II. IDENTIFICATION OF THE STUDENT

3. Full name and sex
4. Date and place of birth
5. Home or current address

III. BASIS OF ADMISSION

6a. By secondary school graduation
    (a) Name and location of school
    (b) Date of graduation
6b. Other
    (a) Individual approval
    (b) Examination
    (c) Other
7. Transfer from other college or university
    (a) Name and location
    (b) Designation of transfer credit

IV. THE RECORD OF WORK TAKEN

8. Curriculum or major subject
9. Dates of attendance
10. Department, catalogue number, and description title of each course
11. Amount of credit granted for each course
12. Grade for each course
13. Current grade point average and cumulative grade point average

V. TERMINATION STATUS AND VERIFICATION OF THE RECORD

14. Statement of graduation
15. Status at time of last attendance
    (a) Good standing
    (b) Probation
    (c) Suspension
    (d) Dismissal
16. Signature of proper official
17. College seal

VI. INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES, PERTINENT REGULATIONS AND DEFINITION OF TERMS

18. Length of term
19. Definition of credit unit
20. Adequate column headings
21. Clear designation of types of credit
22. Explanation of the grading system

VII. GENERAL

23. Quality
24. Minimum and maximum size of transcript

Registration

Registration is defined as the preparation of materials and facilities; the enrollment of students in classes, which for the student involves the selection of classes, having them officially accepted, and payment of fees; and the preparation of class rolls and related student records, for the orderly beginning of instruction (AACRAO, 1962). It is through this process of registration that records of students academic progress and status are initiated and then cumulatively maintained. According to Fordyce, Shepard, and Collins, (1965) specific duties are the responsibility of the registrar and his staff: (a) designing registration forms and data processing procedures, (b) processing class changes and withdrawls, (c) processing instructor's grades, (d) providing transcripts of students' records to senior colleges and other advanced institutions to which the students seek admission. The uniqueness of the methods used by each university makes it impractical to detail a single method in this presentation.

Utilization of Data

Several questions can be raised relative to the basis for, and the utilization of, the data that are collected on the junior college student. First, what data should be collected on these students? According to Blocker, Plummer, and Richardson, (1966) "information concerning the student's aptitude, achievement, health, and personal background will be collected as a matter of routine." If it is felt that more information is needed, it can be added as it becomes available during the student's enrollment at the institution. In summary, then, the junior college should keep accurate, functional records of pertinent information gained through the admissions process, and if so desired, any information that becomes available after the admissions process has been completed.

Secondly, to whom should these permanent records be made available? In answering this question, administrators and instructors who have dealings with any particular student should have free access to his records, with the exception of confidential information taken from the student. These records, then, should exist to serve the student, the faculty, and the administration, and they should be located in a central location easily accessible to those who would use them. Adequate control should be initiated by the institution to insure that the confidentiality will be maintained. Medsker, (1960) in a study of seventy-five two-year colleges located in fifteen states, came to the conclusion that "a good system of academic records is maintained in all colleges." In this same study, it was found that in most cases the records were kept in some centralized location, and that they were quite easily accessible to staff members who wanted to use them for counseling purposes.

In a statement of policy regarding confidentiality of student records, the American Council on Education (1967) states that, "the maintenance of student records of all kinds, but especially those bearing on matters of belief and affiliation, inevitably creates a highly personal and confidential relationship." Thus, the above mentioned organization offered four recommendations to all institutions of higher education. A brief resume of these recommendations is as follows:

1. Each college and university should clearly formulate and implement policies to protect the confidential nature of student records.
2. When demands are made to disclose confidential information regarding students' beliefs or associations, the institution involved should not produce said information without consultation with attorneys.
3. Institutional policy should not inordinately hinder the advancement of research and scholarship, but in this same vein, consent should be obtained from the student whose records are in question.
4. Institutions of higher education should not maintain membership lists of student organizations, especially those which are political in nature.

This concept of students rights and confidentiality of student records is also stressed in a statement proposed by a drafting committee representing the following six organizations: the American Association of University Professors, the Association of American Colleges, the United States National Student Association, the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators and the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors. This statement, entitled, "Proposed Joint Statement of Rights and Freedoms of Students", included a section emphasizing the importance of the confidentiality of student records. A summary of this statement is as follows: (1967)

1. To minimize the risk of improper disclosure, academic and disciplinary records should be separate, and the conditions of access to each should be set forth in an explicit policy statement.
2. Transcripts of academic records should contain only information about academic status.

3. Information from disciplinary or counseling files should not be available to unauthorized persons on campus, or to any person off campus without the express consent of the student involved except under legal compulsion or in the case where the safety of persons or property is concerned.
4. No records should be kept which reflect the political activities or beliefs of students.
5. Provisions should be made for periodic routine destruction of non-current disciplinary records.
6. Administrative staff and faculty members should respect confidential information about students that they acquire in the course of their work.

In still another article, Blackwell, (1965) comments on the legal hazards of transmitting a student's records to his high school. He feels that high school counselors request college records of former students in order to evaluate the performance of these students at different colleges. No court decisions in this area are known; consequently, the immunity of college officials to charges of libel in the case of forwarding "privileged communication" has never been established. Blackwell also implies that if the issue were brought before the courts, the probable ruling would be that college officials are protected in performing what they consider a useful function, even without the student's consent.

A third question relative to the record keeping service of a college centers on the preservation of records. How much information should be kept on a student after he has left an institution, and then, how long should this information be maintained? In the larger institutions, microfilm might well be the answer to the problem, but for the smaller institution, such as many junior colleges, the size of the operation may not justify the expense of microfilming. If the latter is true, a good case might be made for retaining little more than grades, test scores, and the reason for withdrawal (if the student did not graduate). The question regarding how much information should be retained on each student will probably be best answered by regular reviews of the retained material to see how much of it has been put to use. How long these records should be maintained should be left to the discretion of the institution. According to Fordyce, (1965) "There should be constant review of student records to insure that they are indeed effective and functional. Records do not exist for their own sake; they exist only for the purpose of assisting the college to help the student meet the aims and objectives of his collegiate program." These records, then, should be comprehensive, pertinent, accurate, and should have the widest possible dessemination.

A fourth, and final question, centers around the use of the data in a student's folder. Thornton (1966) feels that "the personnel office, ideally, should make student folders conveniently available to *any instructor who asks for them."* He goes on to state that "such a wealth of information about students should encourage its use in institutional research." It should become apparent, then, that facts about students should not be utilized just for counseling and faculty pruposes, but these facts should also be used by personnel workers, curriculum committees, and the administration of the college who might need information about the characteristics of their student body. Again, according to Thornton, (1966) "no college should ignore this source of insight for curriculum development and for program evaluation."

Conclusions

A survey by the authors of 45 applications for admission used by community colleges in 16 states showed a lack of uniformity or consistence in formation requested. The survey found the range in length of application form was from one to twelve pages with the average being five pages. It was also found that nineteen out of the forty-five application blanks requested a matriculation fee ranging from $2.00 to $100.00 with an average of $10.00. Entrance examinations were requested by fifteen out of forty-five. Student personnel forms were required by three of the forty-five applications. It is recommended, then, by the writers that the length of the application form should be a maximum of two pages, preferably front and back of one sheet, and that it should contain information which can be utilized in the permanent record as presented on page 13.

Publications of the college should be attractive with an emphasis on the presentation of an accurate, factual picture. The importance of the academic area should take precedence over the non-academic, social aspects of the publications.

The policy statement of the community college should be explicitly stated with regard to conditions of access and confidentiality of student records. Implementation of this policy should be of prime concern to the director of admissions and records.

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ORIENTATION TO THE COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGE

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Introduction

The public community junior college is characterized by a heterogeneous student body pursuing broadly diversified curricula in preparing for various occupational and educational goals. This fact alone should provide the rationale for a well-planned, continuous orientation program which has as its primary function that of increasing the student's receptivity to the educational experiences the community junior college has to offer. By "well-planned" we mean that those who are primarily responsible for the program have a commitment to these ideas: (1) the involvement of students, faculty and administration in planning and implementing the program; (2) knowledge of student characteristics and needs; and (3) periodic restating of the aims of the program and re-evaluation of the methods used in meeting these aims. By "continuous" we mean that orientation is a process that begins in high school and continues through transfer to the four-year institution or to employment.

While orientation programs are receiving more attention from national organizations and individual institutions regarding their present status and future direction, three observations are worthy of note. First, the preponderance of studies and commentaries on orientation programs center around four-year colleges and universities. Second, these studies are difficult to assimilate because they are characterized by differences in objectives, differences in techniques or in the administration of the program, and differences in method of evaluation. Third, research relating to orientation programs at the community junior college level is characterized by paucity. Moreover, some writers feel that there is little justification for the existence of orientation programs, at least as they are presently defined (Caple, 1964; Grier, 1966).

Purposes of Paper

This paper will attempt to provide the reader with a general over-view of the literature as it relates specifically to the goals, philosophy, and purposes of orientation programs. Since there are almost as many varieties of orientation programs as there are institutions of higher education, no attempt will be made to reproduce descriptions of these programs. Moreover, "if one merely lists current practices, he does not come to grips with the basic issue of whether or not they are effective" (Brown, 1961). Each community junior college would have to develop its own program or orientation in light of its institutional goals.

A second objective of this paper is to present an analysis of orientation procedures currently in operation in selected community junior colleges across the country. This should provide the reader with general knowledge of what other institutions are doing in this area as well as shed some light on the direction that orientation programs are taking.

The third purpose of this presentation is to assimilate the findings from the literature and the results of the authors' survey of orientation practices into a realistic approach to the orientation of students to the community junior college. While no attempt will be made to present the *sine qua non* in orientation programs, there are some ideals toward which we are working. These ideals will represent a model or set of constructs from which any community junior college can draw in setting up its own program of orientation. Muller (1961) captures the difficulty of this task by stating, "It is easier to plan and carry out a campus orientation program than to describe the complex of underlying theories." In other words, many orientation programs are planned and implemented with little consideration given to the rationale or need for the particular activity or event.

Review of the Literature from 1960 to Present

Four-Year Colleges and Universities

In a recent book, Shaffer and Martinson (1966) state that "The major purpose of orientation to higher education is to communicate to the new student that college is a self-directed, intellectually oriented experience. Purposes next in importance include informing the student and his parents about the college, counseling them, (and) completing various mechanical processes needed to enroll the student in his classes . . . ." Mueller (1961) reinforces this position by maintaining that "the objectives of orientation week are the objectives of the whole personnel program in miniature." The freshmen should be persuaded to assume responsibilities rapidly and the institution should find out as much as possible about the student while the student is informing himself about the institution.

Research presents a wide diffusion of ideas on goals and purposes. Fitzgerald (1963) discusses two philosophical approaches to orientation. "The microcosmic approach orients or directs the student to his immediate relationship to the institution. . . .emphasis is placed upon placement testing, preregistration advising, introductory convocations . . . . The macrocosmic approach is designed to place the student in position within the institution in terms of the functions and goals of higher education. Emphasis is placed upon intellectual challenge and development, philosophical treatment of the student role and relationship with the institution . . . ." Elements of both must be accomplished in the orientation program.

This philosophical approach is supported by Patty (1966) who maintains that the terms "macroscosmic" and Microcosmic" are more adequate for describing the purposes of freshman orientation.

McCann (1967) emphasizes the "importance of exposing new students to the demands, standards, opportunities, and expectations of life on campus. Those in charge must keep in mind the current nature and characteristics of today's undergraduate in planning orientation programs. Students are "becoming more concerned about academic obligations, national and international issues, student rights and responsibilities, curricular offerings and evaluation . . . ."

A similar theme is expressed by Fahrback (1960) who suggests that "each institution periodically re-evaluate its current orientation program to be certain that it is geared to and synchronized with the new population enrolling each year."

Freedman (1960) reinforces this same idea by stating that "the goals of American culture and of the typical American student body are quite divergent from the goals of our colleges and universities. . . .freshman orientation procedures should be concerned with helping entering students realize and appreciate the larger goals of a college education.

The academic-intellectual approach to orientation was expressed by Li (1962), Black (1964) and Schleman (1962). Their ideas were similar to those of Brown's (1961) report of a conference on orientation to college learning. He stated that "the main purpose of the freshman year in any college should be to win the freshmen to the intellectual life.... We must tell the freshmen the truth about college, let him in on the knowledge we have about what things are really like. Above all he must be confronted with the idea that is he supposed to change, indeed with the idea that this should be his main purpose in college. He is not in college to go on being the same person he has been in the past....Thus, the whole orientation program is exceedingly important because it sets the tone, establishes a level [illegible] expectancy, and lets the freshman know at once what it means to be a student at this institution."

Several studies concerning the evaluation of orientation programs have been conducted. In her comprehensive survey of colleges and universities, Kronovet (1966) found that the goals of orientation programs included "introduction to college life, facilities, and facts; remedial work; or discussion courses." Her study indicated the need for more well-defined goals of orientation programs.

Commenting on Kronovet's study, Pappas (1967) states that "the number of orientation programs continues to increase, despite the fact that little agreement can be found in the literature or among college personnel workers as to which approach seems to be most beneficial to entering freshmen."

Pappas' observation is further explained by an examination of a study by Miller and Ivey (1967). It appears that student attitudes toward the purpose of orientation programs can be changed if suitable programs are presented. The authors found that as a result of new experimental programs in orientation over a three-year period, the students shifted their attitudes from "social purpose" to "academic purpose" as the main focus.

Tautfest (1961) evaluated the most interesting and least interesting aspects of orientation programs at Purdue

University. A sample of 100 prospective freshmen were given questionnaires to complete as a preorientation measure of interest in the topics of an orientation program. Of the 76 questionnaires that were returned, topics were ranked in the following order of interest: (1) academic responsibilities and study habits, (2) academic program planning, (3) familiarization with the campus, (4) handling finances in college, (5) extracurricular activities, (6) social adjustment, (7) special remedial services, (8) living away from home, (9) the purpose and value of education, and (10) community facilities.

According to a survey by Forrest (1966), the goals of summer orientation programs at 53 institutions in the mid-west were were to simplify fall registration and orientation and to reduce the confusion among new students. Approximately two-thirds of these institutions had initiated the summer program within the last six years which may indicate a trend that other colleges and universities will follow.

In determining who should carry out the orientation program, Myers (1964) places the greatest responsibility with the teachers. "The teacher should help orient his group to the challenges college will bring to freshmen and prepare them for the specific experiences of registration, location of facilities, student responsibilities in the college community, academic expectations, administrative policies and special campus services. Student leaders should be assigned to each group to explain student activities . . . ."

Grier (1966) supports Myers' statements and warns us that orientation programs "will collapse unless unnecessary and outmoded practices are eliminated . . . . Today academic and intellectual development are stressed, yet orientation programs still emphasize activities rather than the academic, mechanical, and intellectual programs of the college . . . . Orientation to learning can best be accomplished by the faculty with small groups."

The use of the faculty and small groups in orientation is also reported by Zwicky (1965). The success of an orientation program with an intellectual emphasis was "attributed to several causes: instruction of the faculty members involved; the training of eager students working as counselors; the brief time span of the program; the changing character of the student body today; and the choice of readings assigned." The students participating reported positive reactions to this approach and expecially favored the small group discussions led by faculty members.

Another study emphasizing the use of small groups was conducted by Reiter (1964). The Orientation Attitude scale was administered to a group of students in an attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of a six month college orientation program in modifying certain attitudes related to college life after a period of three years of college attendance. Reiter concluded that "certain attitudes of college students may change as a result of three years of college attendance, and at least partially as a result of an orientation program which employed small discussion groups."

Smith (1963) reports the use of voluntary small group sessions in the orientation program. In evaluating the effectiveness of this approach, he found that those freshmen who met throughout the first semester had only an 8% withdrawal rate at the end of that period while the control group had a 24% drop-out rate.

In summarizing the review of the literature over the past seven years regarding the philosophy and goals of orientation programs, three basic trends are evident. (1) There has been a shift in emphasis toward more academic-intellectual goals instead of toward making the students "feel at home." (2) The use of small groups is becoming an integral part of the orientation program. (3) Short-term summer orientation programs are being used to simplify fall registration and reduce the confusion among new students. The direction that orientation programs will take in the future is difficult to predict at this time.

Community Junior Colleges

Orientation is discussed by Blocker (1965) in terms of meeting students needs which are divided into three categories. First, "students entering college for the first time need to assess their particular pattern of aptitudes and aspirations and to learn how these can be best employed to promote success in the institutional context of the two-year college. Secondly, the student must become acquainted with the facilities and resources of the college . . . . Lastly, the orientation program provides an opportunity for students to become acquainted with the activities . . ." sponsored by the college.

In his book, Medsker (1960) reports the use of special courses as part of the continuing program of orientation. In a study conducted by the author, approximately one-third of the colleges conducted orientation courses for less than one semester while another third ran them for a full semester with credit given. The content of these courses in group counseling includes study habits, occupations, educational requirements for vocational preparation, and meaning of test scores. Apparently the remaining third colleges did not continue orientation on a group basis by the use of a special course.

As part of their orientation program, Phoenix (Junior) College counseling staff conducted a pilot program of working with prospective freshmen during the summer of 1965. Students participating in the program were not exclusively junior-college-bound. The purpose of the program was to "provide comprehensive counseling prior to matriculation and to offer students more time to think about vocational goals and the educational means of attaining their objectives" (Garneshi, 1967).

Included in the orientation program at Gibbs Junior College is an individual interview held with each student by the counselor. The purpose of this interview is to give the student a better knowledge of occupational opportunities, academic progress, and personal-social adjustment. The students evaluated these interviews by completing a questionnaire. Results were favorable, indicating that the interview provided an opportunity for learning and self-evaluation (Hayes, 1965).

The Niagara County Community College attempted to evaluate its orientation program by conducting a study of 200 entering freshmen. Half of the group participated in a one semester orientation program while the other half received no orientation. No significant differences were found between the two groups on mean grade point averages at the end of the first and second semesters. No differences were found in attrition rate for either semester. In addition, no significant differences between the two groups were found in value orientation as measured by the Study of Values Scale at the end of one semester.

In regard to the above mentioned study, two considerations are proposed by the researchers. (1) An orientation program such as the one used in the study does not work with a heterogeneous community college group. (2) No significant behavior changes were found either because of the design of the program or because the changes were too slight and diffuse to be measured by the criteria of college success (Rothman, 1967).

In referring to articulation between the junior college and the four-year institution as part of the continuous orientation program, Knoell and Medsker (1960) have this to report: "In many four-year institutions transfer students are being overlooked in planning orientation programs, in offering counseling services to new students. . . .in giving appropriate academic advice at the time of their first registration . . . . Too often the transfer students are grouped ignominiously with the new freshmen in orientation programs where they feel awkward and welcome."

In summarizing the recommendations of the Joint Committee on Junior and Senior Colleges, Nelson (1966) stresses the role of the senior colleges in the orientation of transfer students. Two important ways in which the senior colleges can minimize articulation difficulties are to assign advisers to transfer students early and to develop orientation-induction programs reflecting the interests and problems of entering junior college transfers.

The review of the literature at the junior college level indicates similar trends in the goals and philosophy of orientation program that were shown at the senior college level. Two variations in these trends in the junior college include an emphasis on an orientation course and on vocational preparation.

Survey of Present Orientation Practices in Selected Public Two-Year Colleges

In order to investigate the extent to which these trends have been incorporated into the orientation programs at the junior college level, a survey was conducted. How committed are the junior colleges to the idea that orientation is a continuous process? Are there any features of orientation programs unique to the junior colleges? The following represents an attempt to answer these and other questions.

A questionnaire designed by the authors was sent to the Dean of Student Personnel Services at 55 public two-year colleges. These colleges were selected on the basis of enrollment, growth of the two-year college movement in a particular state, geographical spread, and national attention for their orientation program. Forty-four questionnaires were completed, representing an 80% return. A list of all colleges to whom the questionnaire was sent is included in the Appendix B. A copy of the questionnaire is included in Appendix A.

The questionnaire was designed to investigate the extent to which elements of orientation programs, as previously discussed in the introduction to the paper, existed. Specifically, these elements include: (1) articulation with high schools; (2) orientation on the two-year campus; and (3) articulation between two-year and four-year institutions. In completing the questionnaire respondents answered specific questions and were given the opportunity to make additional comments.

In analyzing the results of the questionnaire, it became evident that certain responses were influenced by the size of the institution. Therefore, this enrollment criterion was divided into three categories: small colleges (under 2,000), medium colleges (2,000-5,000), and large colleges (over 5,000).

Response items in part one of the questionnaire were concerned with the prospective junior college student. Respondents were asked to indicate their method of articulating with the high schools.

TABLE 1

Method of Articulating With High Schools Used by Selected Public Junior Colleges

Line of Communication	Small (Under 2,000) N=16	Medium (2-5,000) N=14	Large (Over 5,000) N=14
	Junior Colleges by Enrollment		
Junior College Counselor & High School Counselor	13 81%	12 86%	11 79%
Junior College Counselor & High School Student	15 94%	11 79%	11 79%
Visit of High School Counselor to Junior College	13 81%	11 79%	13 93%

Results of the survey showed that junior colleges have established several lines of communication with the high schools as indicated by the overlap in responses. Relationships established include: (1) junior college counselor to high school counselor, (2) junior college counselor to high school student, and (3) visitation of the high school counselor to the junior college. A unique method of articulation indicated by one respondent included the use of an off-campus conference for junior college staff and high school counselors.

In the second part of the questionnaire, six response items were directed at specific orientation procedures on the junior college campus. The first item concerned the composition of the orientation program committee.

TABLE 2

Composition of Orientation Planning Committee at Selected Public Junior Colleges

	Junior Colleges by Enrollment		
Members	Small (Under 2,000) N=16	Medium (2-5,000) N=14	Large (Over 5,000) N=14
Administrators & Faculty	1 6%	0 0	4 29%
Administrators, Faculty, & Students	10 63%	8 57%	4 29%
Student Personnel Staff	5 31%	6 43%	6 43%

A planning committee composed of administrators, faculty, and students is predominate at the small and medium sized junior colleges. Additional comments from three colleges indicated that the committee was comprised of student personnel staff members and students.

TABLE 3

Student Involvement in Implementing the Orientation Program at Selected Public Junior Colleges

	Junior Colleges by Enrollment		
	Small (Under 2,000) N=16	Medium (2-5,000) N=14	Large (Over 5,000) N=14
Yes	15 94%	14 100%	12 86%
No	1 6%	0 0	2 14%

This table shows that there was extensive student involvement in the implementation of the orientation program.

As noted by this study many of the colleges continue to schedule orientation-registration procedures as a fall event.

TABLE 4

Implementation of Orientation Programs at Selected Public Junior Colleges

	Junior Colleges by Enrollment		
Implementation of Program	Small (Under 2,000) N=16	Medium (2-5,000) N=14	Large (Over 5,000) N=14
Summer Orientation-Registration	2 13%	7 50%	5 36%
Fall Orientation-Registration	13 81%	12 86%	12 86%
Small Group Sessions	3 19%	2 14%	3 21%
Large Assembly	4 25%	3 21%	4 29%
Combination of Small and Large Group Sessions	11 69%	11 79%	7 50%
Attendance Required:			
Yes	10 63%	11 79%	7 50%
No	1 6%	3 21%	4 29%

Many of the small and medium sized colleges utilized a combination of small and large group sessions in carrying out the program. The majority of these same colleges required attendance at the orientation sessions.

A specific orientation course was offered by half of the large colleges, but few of the small and medium sized colleges reported this.

TABLE 5

Characteristics of the Orientation Course at Selected Public Junior Colleges

Characteristics	Junior Colleges by Enrollment		
	Small (Under 2,000) N=16	Medium (2-5,000) N=14	Large (Over 5,000) N=14
Specific Course Offered:			
Yes	4 25%	5 36%	7 50%
No	9 56%	5 36%	5 36%
Credit	4 25%	6 43%	9 64%
Non-Credit	2 13%	1 7%	1 7%
1 Semester	2 13%	2 14%	4 29%
2 Semesters	0	0	0
Group Leader:			
Faculty	5 31%	3 21%	2 14%
Counselor	5 31%	3 21%	7 50%

Among the colleges offering a course there was little consensus concerning credit given, length of the course, or responsibility for leadership. Additional comments noted the use of a half semester course and students delegated as group leaders.

Respondents were asked to rank the purposes of the orientation program according to importance.

TABLE 6

Purposes of Orientation Program Ranked According to Importance at Selected Public Junior Colleges

	Junior Colleges by Enrollment								
Rank Order of Importance	Small (Under 2,000) N=16			Medium (2-5,000) N=14			Large (Over 5,000) N=14		
	Coded Statements			Coded Statements			Coded Statements		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
1st	4 25%	0	10 63%	4 29%	1 7%	8 57%	3 21%	0	8 57%
2nd	6 38%	6 38%	2 13%	6 43%	1 7%	4 29%	5 36%	4 29%	3 21%
3rd	3 19%	8 50%	3 19%	1 7%	11 79%	0	5 36%	6 43%	3 21%

Code Statement of Purpose

A---Acquaintance with the campus, faculty, and administration

B---To acquaint students with organizations and activities

C---To acquaint student with philosophy and objectives

Regardless of size of the institution, there was common agreement in ranking the purposes of orientation programs as follows: (1) to acquaint students with the philosophy and objectives of the college, (2) to acquaint students with the campus, faculty, and administration, (3) to acquaint students with organizations and activities.

Results of Table 7 indicated that the questionnaire method of evaluation was used by many colleges. Additional comments noted the use of an orientation committee, informal conferences with participating students and faculty, and evaluation session by leaders.

TABLE 7

Evaluation of the Orientation Program at Selected Public Junior Colleges

	Junior Colleges by Enrollment		
Method	Small (Under 2,000) N=16	Medium (2-5,000) N=14	Large (Over 5,000) N=14
Questionnaire to participating new students	8 50%	5 36%	7 50%
Questionnaire to faculty and students who planned and implemented the program	3 19%	5 36%	7 50%
No evaluation conducted	5 31%	4 29%	0

In the third part of the questionnaire, response items concern articulation between the junior college and the 4-year institution. Table 8 indicates variation in the extent to which 4-year colleges send representatives to the junior college campus.

TABLE 8

Visitation to the Selected Junior Colleges by Representatives from the Colleges to Which the Majority of Students Transfer

	Junior Colleges by Enrollment		
% of 4-Year Colleges Sending a Representative	Small (Under 2,000) N=16	Medium (2-5,000) N=14	Large (Over 5,000) N=14
Under 25%	2	0	1
25% to 49%	0	0	2
50% to 74%	3	3	4
75% to 99%	5	6	1
100%	4	4	5

Results of the last response item indicated that a large number of the respondents considered transition of the junior college student to the 4-year institution as an integral part of orientation. The staff member who had the responsibility of working with the potential transfer students varied among the colleges. The specific staff member and the number of medium and small sized colleges making this designation were as follows: counselors (7), dean of students (5), academic dean (2), faculty advisers (3). Twelve large colleges reported that counselors were assigned to work with transfer students.

Two-Year College Orientation Program - A Suggested Model

The student personnel staff is responsible for planning, coordinating, implementing, and evaluating the orientation program. This position of leadership cannot be delegated. Every resource on the campus must be utilized in accomplishing the goals of orientation. In this instance, the goals include a continuous, well-planned program of orientation aimed at increasing the student's receptivity to the educational and co-educational experiences of the community junior college.

I. High School-Junior College Articulation

Broadly speaking, orientation begins in junior high school when the student is deciding in which direction to gear his high school education. This model will, however, concentrate on high school articulation only.

In order to make the transition from high school to junior college as valuable as possible, both institutions must provide the student with a variety of experiences. High on the list of priorities is that of interpreting the meaning of a junior college education. Students should know something about these institutions before applying for admission. This can be accomplished by:

1. Inviting the high school counselors to visit the

junior college and participate in brief workshops. High school counselors can serve as a good source of information for the junior college.

2. Encouraging high school counselors to prepare the students for visits by junior college counselors. At this level the high school counselor could:
    a. distribute printed material on junior colleges
    b. show films such as "The Community College"* or "Who Should Go To College,"* and conduct follow-up discussions.
    c. engage in individual counseling with prospective applicants to the junior college
3. Inviting junior college counselors to the high school to participate in College Days, College Night or special junior college programs depending on number of students that normally would attend the junior college. Each should compliment the work of the other--not supplement it.
4. Inviting high school students to visit the junior college as individuals or in groups. Special open-house at junior college could be planned. Parents would be encouraged to participate so that philosophy and goals of the junior college can be clarified.

II. On-Campus Orientation Program

At this level, the student personnel staff is primarily concerned with introducing the student to the college, and the college to the student. To effectively accomplish this we need to consider some "types" of students who are enrolling in the community college.

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* Guidance Associates, Pleasantville, New York

1. The student who has a clear idea of the program he would like to follow, and has the ability to be successful in it.
2. The capable but unmotivated student, who does not know what he is looking for.
3. The low ability student who cannot find a job, and enrolls to be with his friends.
4. The underachiever with unrealistic goals, who may also be a "late bloomer."

Campus Resources

After identifying these "types" of students, the second consideration is that of coordinating the campus resources. This can be accomplished by the following:

1. In-service training of faculty and administration
    a. to inform them of the "types" of students enrolling and expectations for the way the program can meet the needs of these students
    b. to clarify their role in the program
    c. to estimate the amount of time these individuals would have to allot for the program
2. In-service training of sophomore advisers
    a. selecting a group of capable sophomores who would work on a voluntary basis, or perhaps receive remuneration. Selection would not be based on intellectual

ability alone, but could include such attributes as friendliness and interest in aiding new students.

b. providing an overview of the on-campus program to this group

c. providing small group discussions with these sophomores to enhance their skills in communication

d. assigning specific responsibilities such as: serving as group leaders, answering questions, guiding tours, and directing traffic

e. utilizing these students in the evaluation of the program

Implementation of On-Campus Orientation

Three-Phase Program

1. An individual summer appointment.
    a. The student has the satisfaction of meeting with a counselor to review his educational plans.
    b. His initial program can be planned, and his registration is finalized.
    c. The counselor takes this opportunity to suggest the voluntary orientation course to the student.
    d. The student personnel staff begins to formulate impressions of the freshmen class.
    e. An individual appointment may not be possible for late applicants. A series of small group meetings for students of similar interest would be held for scheduling purposes.

2. Freshmen fall assembly
    a. The purpose and time allocated for the assembly would vary according to the college.
    b. All new students should receive an announcement of the assembly.
    c. The schedule of events could include:
        1. a coffee hour
        2. a round of "open offices"
        3. open house at the library, labs, and gym
        4. a luncheon
        5. a formal presentation period
        6. a preview of the voluntary orientation
    d. The activities incorporated in this phase of the program should be delegated to sophomore advisers under the leadership of a student personnel staff member.
3. Voluntary orientation course
    a. Counselors who are skilled in group techniques would meet with a group of students once a week.
    b. Other faculty members could participate as resource agents.
    c. Representatives from the community could serve as resource agents, also.
    d. Counselors should make use of learning theory principles which state that students can absorb only so much at one time and that they must be able to relate what is done in class to their own experiences.
    e. Topics to be discussed should originate from the group.

f. If structure is to be given, some suggested areas of exploration could include:

   1. viewing the college experience as one of self-direction
   2. aspects of developing meaningful relationships, and objectively evaluating oneself
   3. consideration of problems in the world of work that may be of concern to the terminal student
   4. attitudes and interests which promote intellectual growth

III. Articulation with the 4-Year Institution

In facilitating transfer to the four-year institution the following is suggested:

1. Current information should be available on admissions procedures and upper division standing; requirements for graduation; academic majors available at the senior institution; information about costs and opportunities for financial aids, scholarships, loans, and especially part-time employment; housing; counseling and guidance; student activities and other student personnel services.
2. Representatives from 4-year colleges should be scheduled for on-campus visits with students and faculty, and student personnel staff.
3. Students should be encouraged to make an appointment to visit the campus and meet with an admissions officer.

4. Junior college student personnel staff must feedback pertinent information to the 4-year institution regarding what they have learned from their students after transfer.

Evaluation

In order to learn how effective the orientation program is, formal and/or informal evaluations must be made. Evaluative procedures could be established on several levels.

1. High school articulation
    a. Through workshops, seminars or informal discussions, high school and junior college counselors should evaluate the effectiveness of the orientation program.
    b. Questions relating to high school-junior college articulation should be included in evaluation techniques used at junior college level.
2. On-campus program
    a. The program can be studied by means of a questionnaire and/or interviews with new students.
    b. Talking with the new freshmen in natural areas, such as the snack bar, may give insights into the value of the orientation program.
    c. Experimental research designs should be considered. By using control groups the effectiveness of the voluntary orientation course can be tested. Students could be exposed to different "types" of orientation programs in order to determine which was most effective.

d. An evaluation discussion should be scheduled with the sophomore advisers.

e. Members of the faculty and administration may be asked for their comments pertaining to the program.

3. Articulation with the 4-year institution

a. Periodic visitation of the student personnel staff to the 4-year institution to talk with transfer students can be a useful method of evaluation. Perhaps some objective criteria could be used to learn strengths and weaknesses of the transition program.

b. Formal follow-up studies of junior college transfer students to determine their academic, social, financial, and emotional adjustment to the 4-year institution.

Conclusion

Orientation to the college setting is no longer a whirlwind of get acquainted activities and campus tours climaxed by a welcome-to-our-one-big-happy-family speech from the president. For several years students and interested professionals in the field have been asking us to dispose of these tedious rituals connected with orientation programs. In this regard the community junior college is in an excellent position to innovate since it is not as yet steeped in tradition.

Community junior colleges must exert caution, however, in planning their orientation programs lest they duplicate instead of innovate. Greenshields (1959) maintains that "no single program is best for all junior colleges . . . . Any junior college with a copy of a program that has worked in another junior college may soon discover that much revision is necessary." The problem becomes more involved when we read that "junior colleges try to mimic the traditional college patterns with persistence but with little success" (Collins, 1966).

In attempting to follow the current trends in orientation, the junior college is faced with other perplexing problems for which there is little empirical data. If the students are to take an intellectual approach to their education and not a social one, and if the institution represents a self-directed intellectual experience, how does the junior college make its orientation program appeal to a freshman class that resembles a cross-section of the total population? Part of the answer lies in the urgent need for a profile of student characteristics. In other words, what programs work best with which students?

We cannot wait for all of the scientific evidence to come in, however. The junior college is unique because of its open-door policy. In carrying out its philosophy of the worth of the individual, junior colleges must realize that more than good classroom instruction is needed. The student must be provided with continuous guidance and direction. Student personnel workers and teaching faculty must join their efforts if a "climate of learning" is to be produced.

Nothing can be gained from arguing whether or not credit should be given for an orientation course or if it is to be mandatory or an elective. Nothing can be gained by boasting that orientation is everybody's job and yet the job of no one if leadership is lacking. Nor is any orientation program going to be built overnight. The model presented in this paper is an attempt at a beginning.

Basically then, what have we said? We have said that orientation is a continuous process. It begins the first moment the student selects his high school courses which will, in turn, influence his later educational goals. It is not something done _to_ students or _for_ students, but rather _with_ students and _by_ students. It is the vehicle by which the student transports himself from one environment to another, from one set of experiences to another, from one goal to another, from one peer culture to another. In essence, orientation is "the art or science of finding oneself, of getting one's bearings, of learning one's relationship to the society in which he lives and works" (Black, 1964). The community junior college cannot afford to minimize its efforts in this regard.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

I. Thinking that orientation begins with prospective students, does your articulation with high schools include:

___Junior College Counselor-High School Counselor Articulation
___Junior College Counselor-High School Student Articulation
___Invitation of High School Counselors to visit Junior College
___Other, Please specify___________________________

II. Orientation on Junior College Campus

1. How is orientation program planned?
___Administration/Faculty Committee; ___Administration/Faculty/Student Committee; ___Student Personnel Staff Only

2. Are students involved in implementation of program?
_________Yes ________No

3. Which of the following aspects of orientation programs apply to your campus:
___Summer Orientation & Registration
___Fall Orientation & Registration

___Small Groups ___Large Assembly ___Combination of both

Attendance required? _____Yes _____No

4. Do you offer a specific course as part of the orientation program?
____Yes ____No ____Credit ____Non-Credit
____1 Semester ____2 Semesters

Size of Groups__________ Group Leader: ___Faculty
___Counselor
____________Other

5. Rank importance of purposes of orientation program: (1st, 2nd, etc.)
___Acquaintance with the campus, faculty and administration
___To acquaint students with various organizations and activities
___To acquaint student with philosophy and objectives of the institution
___Other____

6. By what means do you evaluate your orientation program?
   ___Questionnaire to participating new students
   ___Questionnaire to faculty and students planning and implementing program
   ___None
   ___Other____

III. Articulation between junior college and 4-year institutions

1. Does your orientation program include consideration of the needs of the transfer student to the 4-year institution?
   ____Yes ____No

   Which staff member has this responsibility?_________

2. Of the colleges to which the majority of your students transfer, what ratio send a representative to meet with your students?
   (EX. 3 out of 5, etc.)______________________________

IV. Please add any additional comments below or on the back of page.

Appendix B

Cooperating Two-Year Institutions

Institution	Location
Arizona	
Phoenix College	Phoenix
California	
American River College	Sacramento
Bakersfield College	Bakersfield
* Diablo Valley College	Pleasant Hill
El Camino College	Torrance
Foothill College	Los Altos Hills
Orange Coast College	Costa Mesa
San Joaquin Delta Junior College District	Stockton
San Jose City College	San Jose
Florida	
Brevard Junior College	Cocoa
Daytona Beach Junior College	Daytona Beach
Manatee Junior College	Brandenton
Miami-Dade Junior College	Miami
St. Petersburg Junior College	St. Petersburg
Santa Fe Junior College	Gainesville
Georgia	
** Middle Georgia College	Cochran
Illinois	
Bloom Community College	Chicago Heights
Joilet Junior College	Joilet
Kansas	
Dodge City Community Junior College	Dodge City
Hutchinson Community Junior College	Hutchinson
Kentucky	
Ashland Community College	Ashland
Maryland	
Allegany Community College	Cumberland
Baltimore Junior College	Baltimore
Harford Junior College	Bel Air
Montgomery Junior College	Rockville
Prince George S Community College	Suitland
Massachusetts	
** Berkshire Community College	Pittsfield

Continued

Institution	Location
Michigan	
** Delta College	University Center
Flint Community Junior College	Flint
Henry Ford Community College	Dearborn
* Macomb County Community College	Warren
Monroe County Community College	Monroe
Oakland Community College	Bloomfield Hills
Minnesota	
Rochester State Junior College	Rochester
Mississippi	
** Hinds Junior College	Raymond
Itawamba Junior College	Fulton
* Jackson County Junior College	Gautier
Missouri	
Forrest Park Community College	St. Louis
Meramec Community College	Kirkwood
Jefferson College	Hillsboro
Nebraska	
** McCook Junior College	McCook
New Jersey	
Atlantic Community College	Atlantic City
New York	
Bronx Community College	New York
Corning Community College	Corning
Dutchess Community College	Poughkeepsie
Orange County Community College	Middletown
* Mohawk Valley Community College	Utica
North Carolina	
Lenoir County Community College	Kinston
Sandhills Community College	Southern Pines
Ohio	
Cuyahoga Community College	Cleveland
Oregon	
** Central Oregon Community College	Bend
Southwestern Oregon Community College	Coos Bay
Pennsylvania	
Harrisburg Area Community College	Harrisburg

Continued

Institution	Location
Texas	
Kilgore College	Kilgore
** Tyler Junior College	Tyler

* Responses not received by March 20, 1968

** No response

REMEDIAL SERVICES IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Georgia Adams, Norma Kruger, Margie Young

University of Missouri

The community college assumes as its role the development of flexible educational programs to meet the needs of all potential students. Incorporated into these needs are basic educational limitations. Before many of the students who enter the open-door of the community college can become effective members of the labor force, they have to overcome these limitations. Therefore, a program to reduce the number of functional illiterates through remedial courses coupled with vocational education is an economic practicality for our nation.

Those for whom remedial services must be planned are the educationally, culturally, or emotionally deprived young people who were unable to function effectively at the high school level, but are motivated to overcome this deprivation. As Miriam Cox (1966) has said, "College isn't for everyone: it is only for everyone who can profit by it and is willing to work for it." Those who come from high school saturated with the idea that education is "a free ride and they will be passed simply because they are there" (Cox, 1966) must be eliminated from any type of remedial program.

The marginal student is at the same time an overwhelming problem and an enormous opportunity. In a study reported by Medsker (1960) all of the community colleges surveyed recognized the importance of caring for this student and three-fourths of them had faced the challenge in some manner. It is the accepted responsibility then to salvage as many of those numerous sub-college ability students who enroll each quarter as possible.

The approach must be three dimensional. To counteract the educational, cultural, and emotional deprivation suffered by the students, the program must facilitate the development of academic skills, provide opportunities for personal growth through acquisition of at least a sufficient amount of cultural background needed to succeed in America, and promote adjustment to the self and the society.

Early screening of these students based on ability, past performance, and desire to achieve is essential if the weak student is to be given anything more than a ticket to failure with his admission to college. He needs to begin working at a level where he can succeed. Since the open-door policy decrees that we admit atypical students to the community college, it behooves the college to offer opportunity rather than frustration to them. An organized remedial-type program can repair deficiencies and provide an opportunity to demonstrate college ability. In addition, it improves the traditional college program by eliminating this group of non-achievers from it, thus facilitating the progress of regular students.

The unconventional students who are admitted to the program require some unconventional approaches in meeting their needs. While it is true that we must reserve them the right to fail, a search of their records will indicate that they have availed themselves of this experience. They have spent many hours in study halls and in remedial math and English classes. One more dose is not going to cure the illness. Therefore, the remedial services must be innovative. Many students are denied an education because they lack basic skills. Perhaps the approach must be shifted from repeating the same procedures that have been tried in high school and have failed, to working with "ideas," learning to think and speak and listen, after which the mechanics of the basic skills can be learned.

General Characteristics of Low Ability Students

Community colleges follow varying practices in identifying and in admitting students with low ability. In general, however, identification depends upon both aptitude or ability and previous academic achievement. A recent survey of 185 junior colleges (Schenz, 1963) found that 95% of them have predetermined indexes of success criteria based on scores on standardized tests such as the School and College Ability Test, the Scholastic Aptitude Test, and the American College Test. The percentile range most frequently used is in the eleventh to fifteenth. More than 75% of those junior colleges considering high school grade point average use a "C" average as a means of identifying students of low ability.

The key to the characteristics of students enrolled in the remedial programs may be found in the nature of admissions policies. Generally admissions policies are set in terms of the basic belief that all high school graduates who want college and can profit from an available program should be admitted for at least a trial. Thus, students who do not fulfill regular admissions requirements are often admitted into "regular" programs or given special designation, usually "probationary" and enrolled in non-credit courses. Other terms used to designate a probationary status include special student, contingent basis, qualified entry, basic entrance student, clinic student, opportunity student, deferred admissions, developmental trial, prematriculate, and remedial.

Although some students enrolled in remedial programs are people who have been poorly motivated in previous educational programs, most enrollees have been educationally or culturally deprived in their early years. The problem of the low ability student is particularly acute in urban areas where poverty and de facto segregation generate discouraging numbers of educationally disadvantaged students who lack preparation for even the least rigorous technical programs offered by the community college.

Lack of evidence on characteristics of remedial students is one of the major problems in the development of educational programs realistically geared to meet their needs. But in spite of the lack of extensive evidence about students it is possible to understand their abilities, disabilities, values, and motivations by examining their experiences in the family and community.

Child-raising techniques that produce the educationally deprived student are more typical of the lower social classes than of the middle or upper classes. Therefore, generalizations will be made on characteristics of students from lower class homes but it must be borne in mind that this treatment is an over-simplification of the problem for not all characteristics listed are true of all students from economically deprived homes nor are they necessarily true of all students of low academic ability.

Interests*

1. He has a high concern for the useful or monetary.

   On the Study of Values test he places the highest value on the "economic" and very little value on the "aesthetic." The middle-class student generally rates the "aesthetic" above the "economic."

2. He is restricted in interest to concrete operations.

   Only those activities for which he can see an almost immediate use will be of interest. He has no interest in details or implications of a concept or relationship and lacks concern for people and issues not directly related to himself. He has only a limited interest in processes, except for those which will produce concrete, valuable results within the near future.

*Mildred McBride, 1967.

3. His interest and auditory spans are very short.

His curiosity is limited. He is able to sustain interest only when there is a cursory examination of a series of different things. Because of his limited experience with sustained listening or "in-depth" study, he loses interest very quickly in long reading assignments or lectures.

4. He is intolerant of ambiguity.

He is rigid in his opinions and has a strong resistance to change. He is generally incapable of conflicting emotions or of conflicting value judgments, so he is incapable of seeing things in more than one way and will deny ambiguity as long as possible.

Self-Understanding

1. He is unable to plan for long-range goals.

His concern is with the immediate, and he sees almost no relationship between past and present or present and future.

2. He often aspires to high-prestige jobs.

This is related to his inability to see relationships between present and future. He has no conception of the requirements for the position and sees none of the "connections" between his present position and the unrealistic one he sees for his future.

3. He can feel shame but not guilt.

Although he may be shamed or embarrassed by a situation he is in (social problems, failing grades, or trouble with the law), he feels little or no personal responsibility for it. The blame is placed on another person or an outside force.

4. He sees a bright future for himself.

On the Study of Values test he places very high on the "religious" scale. This has nothing to do with church but shows that he depends on a kind of mystical solution for problems and feels that the future will bring what he wants. He senses a unity in the world that will make everything turn out right, without seeing his own responsibility for that future.

The Effects of Limited Speech

1. The student is limited in length of speech and thought.

The typical lower-class student lives in a home where conversation is limited or even discouraged. The speech used is a kind of verbal "shorthand" that eventually restricts both speech and thought in length and type.

2. He has a limited vocabulary.

The size of his vocabulary is not a cause but a result of his limited speech, but the two work together to reinforce each other. He has great restrictions on the range of qualifiers he is able to use, so his speech becomes quite impersonal.

3. He is restricted to his own social class.

When this limited speech is his only language, he is restricted socially to groups with the same non-verbal background. Speech is rarely used to discuss new ideas. Instead of being used to show individuality, it is used to increase consensus, and there is little pressure to create speech for "outsiders."

4. He is limited in the ability to reason.

Limited speech encourages identification with a local group, not with the larger and more complex society. It becomes progressively more difficult for him to be explicit about anything subjective. "Curiosity is limited and focused by the relatively low level of conceptualization. The restricted planning function and the concern with the immediate tend to make difficult the development of a reflective experience."

5. He is impulsive in speech as well as action.

The "restricted planning function" is reflected in the way the student responds to questions in class. He answers very quickly without taking time to think through various possibilities, and once he has given his answer, he is very reluctant to change it, often defending it strongly until forced by pressure from the class to change. If he is asked to think carefully before answering, he will become restless and may refuse to answer at all.

Reactions to School

1. He is unable to understand abstractions.

There is little difference between lower-class and middle-class children when they enter elementary school, but as the work becomes more abstract, the lower-class students fall far behind. Many of them drop out of school in the ninth or tenth grade.

2. He is better in math than in reading.

"Reading, though emphasized for both groups, may represent a motivation arising from specific value systems, while arithmetic involves a concrete grocery-store transaction common to all groups." (Martin Deutsch, Minority Group and Class Status as Related to Social and Personality Factors in Scholastic Achievement.)

3. He has already experienced a wide range of difficulties in school.

Some of the difficulties are in learning to read, in extending their vocabularies, and in learning to use a wide range of formal possibilities for the organization of verbal meaning; their reading and writingwill be slow and will tend to be associated with a concrete, activity-dominated, content; their powers of verbal comprehension will be limited; their verbal planning function will be restricted; their thinking will tend to be rigid--the number of new relationships available to them will be limited.

4. He often experiences a conflict between home and school.

Part of his increasing difficulty is a reflection of the conflict between school and lower-class values. For middle-class students, school is closely related to home and social experiences, but for the lower-class, school is "discontinuous" and has little relationship to home and peers. Often, he must choose, unconsciously, between conflict and, perhaps, even retaliation from home and peers or isolation from vocational opportunities and the mainstream of society. We can assume that our students have chosen the middle-class values of school, but much of the conflict still exists.

5. He lacks self-confidence.

Previous failures in school have damaged his self-confidence, and, although he enters college, he has little real interest in or understanding of education. He is impatient with classes that do not fit his idea of what education should be--concrete, practical, and immediate.

Problems in Teaching

1. He is unable to operate on a delayed-reward system.

Trying to motivate this student with the promise of future rewards--a better job, higher pay, higher social standing--will not have the same effect as with a middle-class student. He is easily discouraged unless he is able to see some immediate results.

2. He needs to develop social awareness.

The problem is to develop social awareness in a student for whom a society wider than his own family and social class simply does not exist. For him, the only social problems that exist are those which are concrete and personal. Only when a problem has touched him personally will he be willing to examine it. Even then the examination will probably be superficial, and his answer will be positive, admitting to no other possibilities.

3. He needs to overcome self-deception.

He needs a realistic self-appraisal of his abilities, his prejudices, his plans for the future. At the same time, however, authorities on this subject warn that the instructor must take care not to destroy the student's sense of dignity and worth. The rigidity of the student's ideas may be a "defense mechanism," and public ridicule will increase his lack of self-confidence and his distrust of instructors.

4. He is passive.

He will respond to personal attention, but he prefers to remain anonymous in class. Large classes are ineffective because there is less opportunity to give him individual attention; use of impersonal and authoritarian methods increases the passivity. As a general rule, the lower the status of the student, the smaller should be the number in the class.

5. He forgets quickly.

Studies of middle-class students indicate that the greatest changes in attitudes take place in the freshman and sophomore years, but the few studies of lower-class students indicate that school has little effect on their attitudes. What changes are made are apparently forgotten quite quickly when they are no longer reinforced. The attitudes will be retained if they are reinforced by group approval and by his experiences as he perceives them.

NOTE: Often these students have been "segregated" into lower-level classes throughout school where the emphasis was on one or more of the following:

1. Discipline, not content
2. Audio-visual aids (useful as aids but overuse increases the student's passivity)
3. Creative writing (Teachers, especially English teachers, sometimes have the mistaken idea that the student has the ability within him and it only needs to be drawn out.)

Faculty

The one area of this particular program that has a dearth of material is staffing. Even with this limitation, it is generally agreed that staff should be of a special type with an interest in this particular type of student. It is also generally agreed that some special education in teaching the underachiever is helpful and work experience in other than education advantageous to this instructor.

Roman (1966) noted that experience indicated only faculty with genuine concern for the education of the low achiever should be scheduled to teach remedial classes, while Pearce (1966) suggests teachers who have had wide work experiences, have a strong belief in human dignity, and stress empathy are more successful as instructors in remedial classes.

There is a lack of trained people to specifically teach in remediation programs at the present. The one specialist on present community college faculties teaching the remedial student is a reading teacher; the remainder of the staff in the majority of remedial programs surveyed have expressed an interest and are assigned on this basis.

Materials

This aspect of the remedial program has very little available for the adult student at the present time.

Most faculty members teaching at this level develop materials for use by their classes. The materials available at the present time are geared for the remedial classes at lower grade levels, therefore, they are dull and uninteresting to adult students.

The materials listed in the bibliography are a few that are available and are being used at Southwestern Community College, Coos Bay, Oregon. See Appendix .

Programmed materials are most frequently used in remedial education, and the research available indicates this method of instruction is successful. The combination of programmed materials with video equipment is used by some colleges and has proven successful for those using the combination. This latter method has been referred to as a workshop approach to learning; again a specialist should be directing the program for both day and evening students.

Forest Park Community College, St. Louis, found the most frequently assigned materials are: Temac's Seventh Grade Mathematics, Controlled Programmed Learning (Fractions, Decimals, Percent, Ratio); and Temac's First Algebra, TMI Grolier's Fundamentals of Algebra, or Temac's Algebra Refresher. The English grammar programs most frequently assigned are: Harcourt, Brace and World's English 2600 and English 3200 and McGraw-Hill's 300 Commas. An alternate English sequence includes Sullivan's Programmed English, 300 Commas, and English 3200.

The type of materials used would seem to be indicated by the type of remediation needed and the purpose of the remedial services program in a particular college.

Model Program
Forest Park Community College, St. Louis, Missouri

Forest Park Community College of the Junior College District of St. Louis has devoted extensive study to the problem of the educationally disadvantaged. A remedial program was implemented in the Fall, 1965, and will be reviewed here as a model by which to provide some ideas of organization and relationship to traditional curriculum patterns.

Purpose

The objective of this program is to prepare the student to be placed in the appropriate program (college curricula, existing training program, or directly on a job) commensurate with his interests, talents, and abilities.

Method of Entry

The following tests are used: General Ability: School and College Ability Test (SCAT), General Achievement: Sequential Tests of Education Progress (STEP), Basic Academic Skills: SRA Reading Placement Test, and the Wide Range Achievement Test (numerical only).

Students who's past performances and aptitudes raise serious doubts as to their readiness for other college programs are required to participate in this program and any other student who would benefit from the program may also participate if there is room.

Academic dismissals who want to enter the program can do so only if they have attempted/completed less than fifteen hours in a transfer or technical program.

Program

The General Curriculum Program is a two-semester college program in general education. Courses are offered in science, mathematics, social science, economics, humanities, communication skills, and group guidance.

The program is neither primarily remedial nor vocational. General education, basic skills, and assessment of strengths and weaknesses receive attention. Classes remain small (25).

A team of five faculty members shares responsibilities for each group of 150 students. Team teaching is employed, with emphasis on subject area relationships. A continuing evaluation of each student's progress and performance is made by the five member faculty team during each semester.

At the end of the first semester, the team may recommend transfer to another college program, termination of formal education to seek trade skills, or employment for students who will not receive maximum benefit from a second semester in the program. Students who complete the two-mester sequence will receive a certificate of completion.

Grading System

Letter grades are given with the following interpretation:

A = Potential transfer to degree program.

B = Possible transfer to degree program.

C = Second semester General Education recommended.

D = Transfer to college program not feasible.

Audit = Student capable of level of performance required in General Education. Recommend they seek employment.

Evaluation of Remedial Programs

There is much research that remains to be done if remedial programs are to reach their potential. Various types of evaluation of some existing programs have been done. The following studies have been reported by the Educational Resources Information Center (1965-1968).

A statewide survey of "Remedial English Instruction in California Public Junior Colleges" found that remedial English classes in the California public junior colleges were not sufficiently effective. Factors contributing to ineffectiveness noted were: (a) vague objectives, (b) outdated and superficial course outlines, (c) questionable placement procedures, (d) inadequately trained and/or unenthusiastic teachers, (e) high percentage of student failures, and (f) insufficient experimentation.

That junior college remedial programs fail to remediate was also evidenced by a study at Los Angeles City College. The college found that most of its low-ability students did not persist in college more than one year. The remedial courses were not remediating; thus, the emphasis was shifted to general education.

San Diego City College (1967) study indicates that if a choice is to be made between use of conventional books and programmed texts, the programmed texts should be given greater consideration.

Bakersfield College in California evaluated the program for students achieving less than the seventh percentile on entrance tests. After a ten year period it was found more students consistently completed the (opportunity) program.

The study done by Greenfield Community College, Massachusetts (1966) using a summer remedial program as a means of preparing under achieving high school graduates for the community college concluded: (a) the summer remedial program was a causative factor in upgrading students and (b) performance was not affected by vocational counseling.

The evaluation of the remedial program at MacComb County Community College, Michigan, in 1966 reported 90% of the original population returned to college and registered for the second semester, and only 6% of the returning students transferred out of the program in the Spring. Evaluation of the program is done by faculty and students in the remedial classes.

Forest Park Community College, St. Louis, has as a purpose of their evaluation of the program a means of improving the existing program. Students evaluated the program as follows: (a) Programmed Materials Laboratory helpful in basic skills in reading, English, and mathematics and (b) student reaction in general favorable. Faculty evaluation of the program indicated a weakness in the program as students attempted to generalize materials from the laboratory experience to other areas of general education.

This summary of research seems to indicate the method of remediation is indicative of any measure of success. Use of programmed materials and small groups generally seemed most successful in remedial education.

New Careers: Innovation in Remedial Programs

With the change in technology there has been a change in the structure of the occupational world. The method of securing employment in the present society is gradually changing. Many functions currently performed exclusively by professionals could be delegated to persons with less education, experience, and skill. Training does not necessarily have to be a prerequisite for employment. Training for some types of work can take place after employment. It is on this premise that the concept of new careers has based its stand, and recently entered the community college as a means of educating the deprived individual to assume his place in the present affluent automated society.

The concept of "new careers" is based on a pilot study done at Howard University by Dr. Arthur Pearl in 1963. Building on the successful experience of the New York State Division for Youth, who used unemployed, adolescent school dropouts with delinquent histories to interview similar adolescents, The Center for Youth and Community Studies at Howard University obtained a federal grant to train ten school dropouts for new careers. Four were trained for positions in day care centers, four were trained for positions in city run recreation programs, and two learned research by studying the other eight. Successful results were reported by Pearl (1965).

> The 'new career' concept has as a point of departure the creation of jobs normally allotted highly-trained professionals or technicians, but which could be performed by unskilled, inexperienced and relatively untrained workers, or the development of activities not currently performed by anyone, but for which there is a readily acknowledged need and which can also be satisfactorily accomplished by the unskilled worker [Pearl and Riessman, p. 13].
>
> The chance for truly substantial advancement in job station is crucial to the new career concept. A continuum ranging from non-skilled entry positions, extending through intermediate sub-professional functions and terminating in full professional status, changes the nature of the upward mobility in our society [Pearl and Riessman, 1965, p. 13-14].

An example of this would be the movement possible within education and a redefinition of the teaching role. It has been proposed by Pearl (1965) that five functions can be abstracted from the role of teacher: (a) teacher aide (short training experience successfully completed), (b) teacher assistant (two years of college or equivalent), (c) teacher associate (BA degree), (d) teacher (training beyond the BA degree), and (e) supervising teacher (PhD degree). Each step could be attained commensurate with talent and motivation. The basic conept to new careers is "screening people in," especially those with less than a high school education. The three major objectives of the new careers program are: (a) development of large numbers of new professional careers for the poor including the opportunity for advancement into professional positions; (b) greatly improved service for the poor, hiring the nonprofessional; and (c) a major change in the helping professions through reorganization of the professional's role in the direction of increased supervision, consultation, teaching, programming, and planning.

New career programs are funded through local community actionagencies under Title II, Section 205(e) of the Scheuer Ammendment to the Economic Opportunity Act and administered through the United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Works Programs.

The junior community college, because it is designed to be a part of the urban complex and because of the diversified curriculum offered is an ideal position to offer support to the new career concept.

The barrier of current practices in civil service and professional certification practices is a high school diploma, therefore remediation has become a part of the new careerist training program, if he is to complete all requirements including the high school equivalency examination. The inclusion of remediation as part of the program and relating the remediation to the job specifics are vital aspects of the training. Two junior colleges participating in the Scheuer new careers programs are conducting remediation and high school equivalency activities.

The remedial service area at the present time was a "dead end" for many students who could not enter college level curriculums because of an educational deficit. New careers offer practical training to the adult student at the same time giving him an opportunity to apply his newly acquired knowledge.

More than 60 aide positions have been identified to date in currently funded programs in 51 cities.

Core curriculums have demonstrated their effectiveness in recruiting ghetto residents. The Health Core, Education Core, Social Services Core, and Justice Core are examples. Junior colleges participating have indicated a desire to assume responsibility in one or a combination of these programs.

Community colleges, in about one-fourth of the 51 major cities in the United States, are actively involved or planning participation in new career programs this year.

With new programs there is always the possibility of new problems for the college. Each college must consider its goals and commitments to the community and people, think through its responsibility as an agent of social change, and make its own decisions.

Since both remedial service and new careers relate to a common goal, education for the disadvantaged, it does seem a feasible combination to help in the process of education and upgrading of a large number of educationally deprived individuals.

Summary and Recommendations

To summarize current trends in remedial practices in community colleges, the following should be noted. (a) The question is not whether to educate the ever increasing number of disadvantaged students who are coming to the community college, but how. (b) Each college must assess the need for remedial services and provide for it. (c) Selection of remedial students demands as much care as selection of the potential degree students, with diagnosis based on academic aptitude, past performance, and present motivation. (d) Selection of the teaching staff must be based on their interest, understanding, and desire to work with this type of student.

Four recommendations are indicated. (a) Remedial services should form an independent division of the college. (b) Coordination of the services should be the responsibility of a committee composed of representatives of the faculty and counselors who work with these students. (c) Research of student characteristics and critical evaluation of existing programs should be done. (d) New careers programs may be funded by the Department of Housing and Urban Development, the Kennedy-Javits Act, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Economic Opportunity Act, the Department of Labor, the Vocational Education Act, and future acts to be passed by Congress.

*See Appendix , Survey of Present Remedial Practices in Community Junior Colleges, 1967-1968.

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PROGRAMS FOR STUDENTS WITH EDUCATIONAL DEFICIENCIES*

College	Program Title	Admission Requirements	Courses Offered	Instructional Facilities	Sessions Available	Length of Program	Faculty Advising	Counseling Available	Program Coordinator	Student Selection
Community College of Baltimore (1967)**	Remedial***	Cut off scores on tests ACT & H.S. GPA	English Reading Intro. to Algebra	Regular faculty Reading specialists	Summer Evening	1 year				Counselors
Frederick Comm. Col. Frederick, Md.		H.S. GPA (lower 25%) ACT					Yes	Yes	Student Personnel Services	Joint Comm. Faculty & Counselors
Rockland Comm. Col. Suffern, N. Y. (1964)**	Foundations	N.Y. Regents' H.S. Record H.S. Counselor statement Personal interview Autobiographical letter								Associate Director of Administrator
Sullivan County Comm. Col. S. Fallsburg N.Y.	Remedial	N.Y. Regents' Exam								
J.C. of Breward Ft. Lauderdale, Fla. (1967)**	Developmental	Fla. State Placement Test	English Math. Reading Biology						Student Personnel Services	
Lake City J.C. Forest Ranger School Fla.	Basic Studies Program	Fla. St. Placement Test - 150	English Math. Social science Natural science			Student progress determines length			Student Personnel Services	

*Blank spaces on following chart indicate that information was unavailable.

**Date of program's inception

***Certificate granted upon completion of program

College	Program Title	Admission Requirements	Courses Offered	Instructional Facilities	Sessions Available	Length of Program	Faculty Advising	Counseling Available	Program Coordinator	Student Selection
Gulf Coast J.C., Panama City, Fla.		Fla. St. Placement Test - 150 SCAT - 24-32 percentile New Purdue English Test Coop. English Test	History Communications Reading Writing Math. Soc. Sci. P.E. Education Survey						Dean of Students	
Edison J.C. Fla.	Developmental		English Reading Math. Personal Adj.							
Indian River J.C., Fla.	Basic skills									
St. Petersburg J.C. Fla.	Directed Studies Program	Fla. St. Placement Test	Communications Lab. Contemporary English Fund. Math.						Yes	
Miami Dade J.C., Fla	Guided studies		Basic educ. plan. Math. Reading Speech & writing							
Okaloosa, Walton Fla.		SCAT Diagnostic reading	Organized directed tutorial							

College	Program Title	Admission Requirements	Courses Offered	Instructional Facilities	Sessions Available	Length of Program	Faculty Advising	Counseling Available	Program Coordinator	Student Selection
Central, Fla.	Guided studies		English Math. Reading							
Chipola J.C., Fla.	Reme-dial	Fla. St. Placement Test (not adm. below 10 %ile.)	Reading							
Lack City J.C., Fla.		Fla. St. Placement Test (150 - accepted on probation, below 100 - spec. prog								
Lake Sumpter J.C., Fla.	Guided studies		English Reading Math.							
Palm Beach J.C., Fla.		Open-door for Fla. students	English Reading Math.							
Brevard J.C. Fla.		Open-door								
Polk J.C. Fla.	Guided studies	Open-door	English Math. Sec. Sci. Nat. Sci.							
Manatee J.C. Fla.	Develop-mental		Per. Dev. English comp. Math. Humanities							
N. Florida J.C.		Fla. St. Placement Test (none accepted with score less than 100.)								

College	Program Title	Admission Requirements	Courses Offered	Instructional Facilities	Sessions Available	Length of Program	Faculty Advising	Counseling Available	Program Coordinator	Student Selection
St. Johns River, Fla.		Fla. St. Placement Test (scores below 125 - spec. prog.								
Texarkana J.C., Tex.		Open-door ACT	English Algebra							
Amundsen J.C. Chicago, Ill.	Developmental	H.S. GPA, ACT Read. Prof. Writing sample	Reading English Math.						Counseling	
Wm. Rainey Harper Col. Chicago, Ill. (1967)**	Developmental	Lower 10% of H.S. class ACT, H.S. counselor rec.	English Reading Math. Group counseling						Dean of Students	
Highland Comm. Col. Freeport, Ill.		Eng. usage Nelson-Denny Reading Test Instructor made math. & sci. tests.	English Math.						Chairman of Division of Humanities	
Elgin Comm. Col., Ill.	General studies curriculum	ACT - 16% or below H.S. class - lower 20%	English Algebra Reading Geometry Communications Skills I & II Soc. Sci. Gov't.						Dean of Instruction	
Blackhawk Comm. Col. Moline, Ill.	General Educ.***	ACT	English Health Speech P.E. 6-9 hrs. of reg. curr.							

College	Program Title	Admission Requirements	Courses Offered	Instructional Facilities	Sessions Available	Length of Program	Faculty Advising	Counseling Available	Program Coordinator	Student Selection
Rochester State J.C. Minn.	Developmental	Minn. Scholastic Aptitude ACT	Regular curriculum				Yes			
Lansing Comm. Col. Mich.	General studies	ACT H.S. GPA	English Reading Math. Orient.			Maximum per student - 3 sem.		Spec. counseling provided		
Grand Rapids J.C., Mich.	Developmental	SAT	English Reading Math. Orient.		Summer Evening					
Milwaukee Voc./Tech. & Adult School, Wisc. (1966)**		ACT H.S. GPA - must be in lower 10%								
Scotts Bluff, Nebr. (1966)**		ACT - below 10 %ile.	English Math.							
Gavilan Col. Gilroy, Calif (1966)**		CQT GATB	Reading English Math. Speech							
Fullerton J.C. Calif.		ACT - SCAT Coop Eng.	English Spelling Math. Reading Fund. of Drafting					All Freshmen have counselor & orient. class	Assistant Dean Guidance Services	
Cabrillo College Aptos, Calif.			Orient. Basic skills of gram., comp., & math.						Dean of Counseling & Records	

College	Program Title	Admission Requirements	Courses Offered	Instructional Facilities	Sessions Available	Length of Program	Faculty Advising	Counseling Available	Program Coordinator	Student Selection
Reedley Col. Reedley, Calif.	This program has been discontinued	ACE - below 10 %ile. Coop Eng. - below 147 H.S. GPA - below 2.0	Math. English 6 units of voc. courses							
Los Angeles Pierce Col. Calif.			Communications Understanding of lit.							
San Mateo College Calif.		SCAT ETS Coop English	Reading English Guid. 10							
Los Angeles Harbor Col. Calif. (1966)**	Developmental	SCAT - below 16% H.S. Record - poor	Psych. English Math							
College of Marin, Calif.			Reading Psych. History Speech Orient. Math. Art Business Drama (12 per class)						Coordinator of Counseling	
San Joaquin Delta Col. Calif.		Coop English Test	English Health Basic Comm. Soc. Sci.						Dean of Students	

College	Program Title	Admission Requirements	Courses Offered	Instructional Facilities	Sessions Available	Length of Program	Faculty Advising	Counseling Available	Program Coordinator	Student Selection
Hartnell College Salinas, Calif.		SCAT - ACT Coop English Wrenn Survey of Study Habits Davis Read. Strong Voc.							Dean of Student Personnel Services	
College of the Sequoias Visalia, Calif.		CQT Coop English Teacher made Math. and Business	Math. English Reading Soc. Sci.					Counseling according to need		
Pasadena City Col. Calif.		SCAT Coop English Iowa Silent Reading Dirg. Read.	Algebra Business Math. English							
Antelope Valley College Lancaster, Calif.	General studies	SCAT - below 20 percentile	Reading Writing Math.						Dean of Student Personnel Services	
Fresno City Col., Calif.		Coop English Nelson-Denny below 25 percentile	English Health Writing Electives Math. Soc. Stu.					Employment	Dean of Guidance Services	
Skagit Valley Col. Mt. Vernon, Wash.	College Prep. Prog.	Wash. pre-college test GPA predicted below 1.5	English Psych. Math. Voc./Tech. Subj.					Employment		

College	Program Title	Admission Requirements	Courses Offered	Instructional Facilities	Sessions Available	Length of Program	Faculty Advising	Counseling Available	Program Coordinator	Student Selection
Highline College Midway, Wash. (1965)**		Wash. pre-college test	English Intro to Algebra Orient. to behavioral sci.				Yes			
Olympic Col. Bremerton, Wash.		Wash. pre-college test	Grammar Reading Vocab. Study skills Spelling Math.				Yes		Director of Human Relations Center	
Shoreline Comm. Col. Seattle, Wash.	College Exploratory Prog.	Wash. pre-college test	English Soc. Sci. Orient. Counseling advisement	Specialized department			Yes	Yes		
Wenatchee Valley Col. Wash.	Opportunity Prog.	Wash. pre-college test							Dean of Instruction	
Dixie Col. St. George, Utah		ACT	English Math.					Yes		
Lane Comm. Col., Eugene Oregon (1965)**	Study Skills Lab.	Referral by instructors	Math. Spelling English Comp.	Specialists	Regular Summer Evening	Depends on student progress		Yes	Spec. Ed. Director	Referral by instructors
Central Oregon (1966)**	Developmental (No cert. awarded)	ACT - below 10 percentile	Eng. Read. Speech Music Math. Art Soc. Sci. Ed./Voc. Explor.	Interdisciplinary & Reading Specialist	Day only Regular summer	Depends on student progress	Yes	Educ./Voc.	Special Development	Instructors and counselors

College	Program Title	Admission Requirements	Courses Offered	Instructional Facilities	Sessions Available	Length of Program	Faculty Advising	Counseling Available	Program Coordinator	Student Selection
Blue Mtn. Comm. Col. Pendleton, Oregon (1964)**	Learning Lab. Environment	ACT	Same as Central plus Psych.	Reading Specialist				Group	Counseling Service	Counseling Staff
Southwestern Ore. Comm. Col., Coos Bay, Ore. (1965)**	Study Center Workshops (no certificate awarded)	Placement or voluntary Ind. tests to determine grade level Nelson-Denny Reading Test	Communications Writing Reading Math. Basic Ed. Spelling Lit. Soc. Studies	Teaching machine Prog. materials, tutors Developmental Educ. Specialists	Day and evening	Depends on student needs		Group	Dean of Student Services	Instructor referrals Ind. testing by counselors
Forrest Park Comm. Col. St. Louis, Mo. (1965)** (Under Danforth Grant)	General Curriculum for Educationally Disadvantaged	Test scores H.S. GPA	Reading Writing Grammar Personal enrichment Adjustment to Self & Society Sociology Consumer Econ. Society & Science	Full-time teachers for this curr. Programmed materials Individual instruction Team approach of counselors & instructors	Day and Evening	As required to advance to another curriculum		Adj. to Self & Society	Full-time Director (Counselor)	Counselors on basis of tests & H.S. GPA

Source: Collection of letters furnished by Keith Clark, Coordinator of Remedial Services, Central Oregon Community College, Bend, Oregon.

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COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

J. Aiken D. Killin

A. RATIONALE

The rationale for counseling and guidance services in the community college can best be understood against the general purposes and objectives of the junior college movement. The purposes and the objectives of an institution determine what services will be offered to students. Therefore, it is important to describe the purposes and objectives of the community junior college and then develop the rationale for counseling and guidance within this context.

The community junior college has been credited with revolutionizing higher education, with furthering the development of American civilization, with providing an avenue of mobility through educational opportunity for otherwise marginal people and with assuming a major role in the preparation of citizenship decision making. In short, the community junior college has expanded post-high school opportunities for any and all who are interested (Schlossberg, 1966). The community junior college is a unique American institution. It is rightly termed a "comprehensive" college rather than a "single-purpose" institution. It is rooted in its locality and therefore no two community colleges can be exactly alike (Fields, 1962). Several writers see junior colleges as being particularly sensitive to community and individual needs. Their program and services are necessarily diverse among individual institutions.

It is our contention that it is the counseling and guidance functions, in student personnel services, that provide the community junior college with some order and direction for the student. Many writers assert that the context of the community college requires sound, effective, and efficient guidance and counseling practices. The whole program is of necessity supported by the counseling function. For example, Medsker (1960) writes, "without good counseling, the potentially important role of the two-year college in higher education could well be in jeopardy."

"The heart of the comprehensive community-oriented college is its counseling and guidance program." (Sindlinger, 1965) Many other experts in the junior college movement could be cited who make similar statements regarding the centrality of the counseling function in the junior college. However, Thornton (1965) perhaps summarizes the reasons for a good counseling program in the community college well in these words: "Because of its greater spread of educational offerings and because of the greater diversity of its student body, the community junior college seems to need a complete and effective guidance service even more than other colleges."

It is quite clear that any institution that is sensitive to local needs and is "all things to all people" (a popular notion with which we disagree) requires a unit in its organization that is capable of enabling a student to adjust, decide, and achieve with little or no difficulty. Not only is counseling a separate department within the organization of student personnel services, but other student personnel services in the community junior college rely upon the expertise of the counseling function.

T. R. McConnel (Carnegie Report, 1965) is somewhat more explicit in describing the functions of counseling and guidance in the junior college.

> "Once the high school graduation was the moment of choice. Now the community college is rapidly becoming the distributive agency in American Education. Here the student can make fuller and perhaps more accurate inventory of his characteristics; test his aptitudes and interests in the class room, the laboratory, or in work-study programs. Here he can revise his vocational and educational plans by bringing them more nearly in line with his expectations. Here he can establish his identity and begin to attain the independence that characterizes individuality and adulthood."

Here the junior college experience is an opportunity for a student to take time to reflect about himself, his choices, his goals, his vocational and educational opportunities and to test these options. This may be accomplished IF junior colleges are willing to approach their mission in the life of the student as a process of self discovery. Student personnel services, and particularly the counseling services, must be adequate in scope and of such quality that the student may receive the necessary service.

If, in fact, community colleges are committed to individuality, as the writers suggest, counseling services must be designed to insure responsiveness to individual needs. Research describing the junior college students in the main suggests a special population, and the program must be tailored to its special needs. The purpose of counseling is to assist students to reach sound decisions in matters of vocational choice, education planning, and personal concern.

Raines (1965) categorizes the functions of counseling as follows:

1) Applicant Consulting - interpreting tests to applicants, integrating curricular requirements, assist students in selecting courses.
2) Student Advisement - scheduling advisees in classes, interpreting

Sr. college requirements, interpreting study skills to individual advisees.

3) Group Orientation - conducting orientation classes, interpreting occupational information, teaching effective study skills.
4) Student Counseling - making use of diagnostic tests, conducting counseling interviews, interpreting occupational information.
5) Vocational Information - identifying sources of occupational information, studying manpower needs within the community and region, developing effective methods for disseminating career information.

While other segments of the total student personnel program are involved in some of these functions, counseling and guidance must assume a key role in all these activities.

In a review of guidance practices in the Northwest, Starr (1961) recommends the following as key functions of counseling programs: 1) find a method of making students aware of counseling services, 2) make available personnel to permit follow-up on students, 3) use faculty members in guidance, 4) maintain a ratio of 350 students per professional counselor, 5) provide an in-service training program (including extension courses, field training, on-campus sources and opportunity to observe), 6) make professional counselors available at all hours of the day, 7) provide for more extensive personal records, and 8) provide for self evaluation of counseling services. Numerous lists of the functions of counseling and guidance services in the junior college are available It is our belief that the above is fairly representative.

In summary, the mission of the community college, the diverse programs it offers, and the variety of students it serves requires a carefully designed program of counseling and guidance. The nature of the work to be performed is too technical and important to be handled by amateurs (Westherford, 1965). The success of the junior college movement as it is presently defined requires an effective counseling program at the heart of the total enterprise.

B. ORIENTATION

The location of the community junior college and its commitment to the needs of the community and/or region present a challenge to counseling and guidance that is not ordinarily found in any other educational institution beyond high school. It is because of these unique characteristics of the junior college that counseling and guidance in the junior college must be involved in orientation. Certainly it is true that other segments of the college organization may have and will have responsibilities in orientation. However, it appears to us that counselors should play a vital and central role in these activities. Their involvement in orientation at the very start may well determine how effectively the college achieves its mission in the community.

It has been suggested that the gap from high school to college is the largest and most difficult shift in education that a student is asked to make. John McOuary (1965) says, "The prospective college freshman must be aware of the gap between high school and college which is greater than between any other two years of school. It may be manifested as an academic gap, a social gap, a responsibility gap, a gap of goals, or that which might be termed a difference gap." He further states, "Half the battle will be won if the student and his parents are forewarned that such gaps can be expected." The areas of drastic change for the student from high school to college are certainly areas in which the junior college counselor will be directly concerned.

The purpose of orientation and its importance to guidance is to help students get the most from their college experiences. There is no single best model for orientation in junior colleges; it must be an individual approach (Greenshields, 1959). The plea for an individualistic approach to orientation obviously involves counselors.

Medsker (1960) and Thornton (1966) see college counselors working with high school students in the high schools prior to their graduation. Medsker calls this "Pre-admission Counseling" and a part of the orientation process. Pre-admission counseling consists of getting necessary information to incoming students about the college, vocations, the necessity for higher education in our time, and opportunities which the college offers. Representatives of the college should arrange to visit the high schools for interview with seniors. The purpose of the interview would be to 1) clarify questions and 2) stimulate the student to think in concrete terms of possible Fall Courses. Summer or pre-graduation counseling gives the student more time to think about vocational goals and the educational means of attaining their objectives. Junior colleges that implement this type of early counseling find that grade point averages are higher as a rule and there is a reduced drop-out rate. (Heimann, 1967) It is obvious that the pre-admission counseling effort would tend to reduce schedule changes during the first days of instruction. During this period, the college may save much time in obtaining high school transcripts, summary data, aptitude test results and a completed up-to-date personal history.

Of course, many junior colleges conduct summer orientation activities. Medsker (1960) says that summer orientation is increasing. At these sessions general college plans are discussed, selection of the Fall program and necessary testing is administered. The extent and intensity of these programs vary widely. In Medsker's study about one half the colleges require summer counseling at which time the student may discuss the full range of vocational and educational problems. It appears that at this point counselors are more intensively involved.

As will be repeatedly suggested at various points in this paper, the problem of the ratio of counselors to students is a critical issue. Group counseling may be a way to relieve this problem even though it requires time for careful planning from pre-admission counseling and throughout enrollment. Counselors should visit with high school seniors prior to their graduation in groups as well as in a one to one relationship. Aside from orientation group counseling activities, group guidance is connected with continuing orientation for varying lengths of time. (Medsker, 1960) One third of the sample of Medsker's study ran a program of continuing orientation the first half of the first semester. One third conducted these group counseling sessions a full semester with three credits. Some of the colleges surveyed required continuing orientation and some are used as electives. Courses may be related to psychology or personal adjustment. The content of these courses in group counseling generally includes study habits, occupations, educational requirements for vocational preparation and meaning of test scores. The remaining one third of the colleges surveyed did not continue orientation on a group basis. To these writers it is somewhat surprising that such a large percentage of the schools continue some program of orientation after matriculation. This is encouraging.

There appears to be very little in the literature concerning the involvement of parents in the orientation process. This is inferred to some extent when writers talk about the dissimination of information through the press, speakers bureau and publications to the community. We feel this is not adequate and that there should be a program of orientation designed for parents of enrolling students. The intimate relationship to the community makes parents' orientation vital to the success of counseling students. The home environment for the junior college student is a key element in his success. Here is an area for research and experimentation in orienting and soliciting parental cooperation in the student's educational endeavor.

Another area that is not explored fully is the use of other students in the orientation and counseling process. It is advocated by some that other students can be effectively used in the planning and implimentation of orientation and counseling functions (Blocker & Plummer, 1965). To involve students in some areas of counseling orientation would, of course, require careful planning and training on the part of professional counselors. However, we feel that such a suggestion is worthy of consideration and experimentation.

In summary, it is evident that counseling and guidance is an integral part of the orientation process. Counseling personnel should be involved in the planning and participate in the activities of orientation. The counselor's role in orientation is to provide occupational information, brochures, seminars, consultative services, encourage instructional staff to spend time for occupations and analyze occupational information pertinent to local needs for high school counselors and students (Fordyce & Collins, 1965). What is done in orientation will have a direct effect on future counseling of students.

C. ACADEMIC ADVISEMENT

The instructional program of an institution and its personnel services are both a means of serving and educating the student. As a new student enters the junior college he is greeted by the college catalogues, lists of course offerings, co-curricular activities, college rules and regulations, transfer and degree requirements, admissions tests, registration procedures, and all the excitement that goes with a first year college experience. Faced with something closely akin to a psychodelic discotheque in full gear, the student needs someone within the college itself who has the time, patience, and qualifications to assist and advise him about his new venture.

The student advisement function involves: (a) the selection of courses in line with the student's interests, vocational choice, senior college preference; (b) effective study methods; (c) evaluation of academic process and periodic reassessment of vocational choice; (d) identification of and referral to special needs of the student (Raines, 1965). Thus the advisor-advisee relationship is one of the primary means of individualizing the junior college experience.

There is no best way to organize the advisement function. (We are concerned here only with how the guidance and counseling staff are related to advisement. A more detailed analysis of academic advisement appears elsewhere in this volume.) Wrenn (1951) states that the principle of coordination applies less to structure than to function. This is illustrated by the student personnel task of advisement being actually carried out by the academic personnel in most colleges. It becomes the task of the counselors to coordinate the program, if they do not carry out the entire program themselves.

It should be clearly stated that academic advisement practices are varied in nature and basic philosophies not only within individual colleges, but within the states of which they are a part. The basic reason for this is that the college should be free to develop the type of program that is best suited to its own particular situation (Starr, 1961). There can, however, be identified three main types of advisement plans: (1) the entire faculty is recruited to do student advisement (Ostness, 1958) with the counseling staff serving as referral sources, (2) a large enough staff of trained counselors to do all of the advising (O'Banion, 1966), and (3) a selected group of faculty members are chosen, usually on the basis of expressed interest, with the counselors serving as both a referral source and in the student advisor role (Bonner, 1967). The choice of which program used has some strong implications as to the predominent philosophy of the college concerning student needs.

The philosophy of "every instructor a counselor" has a nice ring to it. Weatherford, (1965) however, feels that the nature of student personnel work is too complex to be handled by amateurs. He goes on to say that too few junior colleges have recognized their unique position in the educational structure, and many programs have not been developed creatively to take advantage of this position. Williamson (1960) points out that junior college workers are not focusing effectively on the counseling of low or modest ability student. It follows then, that personnel relatively untrained in student services do not do the best job with these students. The best intentions in the world cannot possibly compensate for inadequate professional preparation. Giving this philosophy every possible benefit it does do the job of advising. It actually involves the faculty with students and if the proposed referral system works it can provide an adequate advisement program for students.

"The college is for instruction and the counselors are for counseling" represents the other extreme. It is true that some faculty members do a poor job of advising. Hardee (1959) points out that not all faculty members are suited for student advisement. One method of not using faculty members exclusively involves the use of trained counselor aids who have attained their Bachelor's degree as a minimum requirement. They are used for academic and transfer requirement interpretations to the students (Merrimac Junior College, 1967). Any all-or-none approach is unjustified. Giving this philosophy latitude, it too has merits. O'Banion (1966) makes extensive use of the faculty as resource persons with the counselors having the direct responsibility of course planning. Robinson(1960) feels that the key to a well organized advisement program is the use of faculty members. The main emphasis of this approach is not questioning the importance of using faculty members, but rather how much responsibility the faculty member should have for its implementation.

The third approach is a compromise. Various faculty members are chosen to be the advisors along with counselors. The selection criteria should be based on the interest of the faculty member in counseling, the ability to deal with students in a one-to-one relationship, and the willingness on the part of the faculty member ot learn the fundamentals of his counseling responsibility (Hardee, 1959). This approach seems to us to avoid many of the pitfalls of the other philosophies. Certainly both groups (counselors and faculty) are involved with students, utilizing their resource potentials and actively communicating with each other.

Medsker (1960) found that the institutions which participated in his study all tended to classify formal advisement services as part of the counseling program. Raines (1965) found that 37.5% of the unsatisfactory advisement programs were organized under non-student personnel division. This means to us that the counseling and guidance staff play a tremendously important role in the success of an advisement program. What is this role? First, there is the role of organization with specific responsibilities for the implementation of the program. Second, faculty members must be trained to carry out their assigned responsibilities. An extensive and lively in-service training program must be developed. An in-service training program for prospective advisors should involve: specific job descriptions, an orientation to the student personnel services, test interpretation and prediction information (Williamson, 1960), course requirements both for transfer and the obtaining of a degree, opportunities to observe advising before actually doing it, and regularly scheduled meetings either individually or by group to discuss recent changes in the requirements and problems that arise.

We are not arguing about who should or should not do advising as much as we are concerned that the counseling staff take the initiative to organize an effective program. It has been pointed out that of the student personnel programs, advisement receives the most attention and is generally d[illegible]e best (Raines 1965). We cannot, however, rest on these laurels, if we do we will soon find we have put them in the wrong place.

D. STUDENT APPRAISAL

Student appraisal is carried on for a variety of reasons: (1) The college must know something about the population it is dealing with for admissions counseling, course placement, educational and vocational counseling, transfer articulation, and aiding the student in occupational placement. Dobbin and Turnbull (Raines, 1965) call these individual information needs. (2) The college needs to know about groups of people too. The educational reasons for group appraisal are planning and evaluating of instructional programs, appraising and upgrading the faculty, assessing the student personnel program of the college,and evaluating college administration policies. This second group of needs though highly important tend to be overlooked in most junior colleges (Raines, 1965).

The guidance and counseling staff are generally charged with the specific tasks of applicant appraisal, educational testing, and basic skill diagnosis. Thornton (1966) has pointed out the values of involving the college counselors in test procedures; 1) The presence of counselors tends to assure standardized administration. 2) Since the testing often takes place at contributing high schools, using college counselors it provides comparable scores on the same examination. 3) The use of college counselors tends to help the prospective student to focus attention on the need to make a decision whether to attend college.

Applicant appraisal includes all of the means and devices used by the college to obtain, organize, and evaluate significant background information for each student. The specific purposes for such a function are to determine the student's eligibility for admission to the college itself, to aid in determining which curricula the student would take, and to determine any restrictions to be placed upon admission or re-admission to the college (Raines, 1965). Seiber (1967) adds research and service to outside agencies

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to the list of purposes. The sources of information include high school grades and test results, pre-college test results, individual interviews, and the compilation of case studies in the form of cumulative records. In the case of private junior colleges, more than public colleges unless a special case, admissions committee inquiries and findings would also be included in the appraisal.

Medsker (1960), Raines (1965), and Siebel (1967) found that most junior colleges used standarized tests before or just after the freshman student entered the college. Siebel (1967) found in his study of 63 junior colleges in 18 states that 90% of the colleges used general ability tests yielding verbal and quantative scores while only 66% actually used this data for guidance purposes. Over 50% of the colleges used tests from outside agencies (A.C.T., statewide test programs, etc.) with 30% using the tests for guidance purposes. Interest inventories were used in over 50% of the colleges, and these were used by the counselors. Special aptitude tests were initially administered by one-third of the colleges with about one-half of them administering them to the entire freshman class. Over 20% of the colleges used personality tests for guidance, and one-half of the colleges were administering them to their entire entering group of students. There seems to be no consensus regarding the use of specific personality tests. Siebel also found that most colleges had provisions for testing as part of the counseling function and that the colleges maintained a file of many different kinds of tests. The methods of reporting scores also varied with colleges. In 80% of the colleges studied, the results were available to students mostly by way of individual counseling situations. At nearly one-fifth of the colleges, the scores were routinely reported to the students without interpretation.

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We find that private junior colleges use testing to a much greater degree than public junior colleges for reasons of student selection generally. It should be noted that Siebel's study (1967) dealt with initial testing and not with testing at a later date. If this factor were included, there would be a difference. Most junior college counseling centers do a good deal of testing in all areas upon teacher or student request for educational purposes.

The third area that involves student assessment is basic skill diagnosis. With a large heterogeneous student population, there has developed a need to assess through testing and survey of previous records the levels of skill in reading, writing, mathematics, and other prerequisite skills necessary for academic success. Williamson (1960) has pointed out that junior colleges are collecting more than their share of low or modest ability students. It has, therefore, become necessary to plan a program designed to identify students with skill deficiencies at an early date to afford them the maximum opportunity of a college experience. Such a program would include not only testing, but personal interviews, faculty coordination, self help programs, and the establishment of remedial courses. Counselors must become more involved in the initiation and coordination of such a program.

The guidance and counseling staff, if it is to continue to be effective in student appraisal, must organize, plan, and initiate programs based on the information found from student assessment and approaisal. There have developed several needs in the area that must be dealt with; 1) Junior college norms and possibly tests designed specifically for the junior college are needed; 2) As junior college curriculums become broader, tests must be developed to differentiate between these programs to aid students with their vocational choices; 3) We need to be more aware and help to

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identify student values and attitudes (Collins, 1965); 4) Lastly, we need to develop methods which make test results more meaningful to students and faculty.

E. COUNSELING SERVICES

The student counseling function should be carried on by professionally trained couselors. Such a program (Raines, 1965) should be designed to aid students who need special assistance in exploring and formulating educational and vocational goals, gaining some self insight into their basic values, interests, attitudes, and abilities, the identification and resolving of problems that tend to interfere with life goals, and lastly identifying appropriate sources of assistance if further help is needed for more intense problems. Such a program should place counseling as the key feature to all student personnel work (Blocker, 1965). Fordyce (Raines, 1965) states that it is obvious that certain student needs, interests and problems cannot be adequately met in the classroom alone or through faculty advising.

Apparently many junior colleges are giving lip service to the importance of counseling. Medsker (1960) found that there is a tendency in the two year institution to classify all formal advisement services as part of counseling. This is done without regard to the complexity of the problems. Yoder and Beals (1966) found in their study of junior colleges in the west that only 64% of the colleges employed full time counselors. Starr (1961) found that the personal-social counseling function had not been extensively developed in the junior colleges of the northwest. Medsker (1960) found in 49 of the 73 colleges studied that it was felt that counseling specialists were not needed. Raines (1965) concludes that less than one-half of the junior colleges have adequate student counseling. This is more poignantly dramatized by the fact that approximately 500,000 junior college students are being deprived of adequate opportunities for counseling.

What kinds of counseling should we be concerned about in the junior college? First there is educational counseling. This function involves interpretation of what the college knows about the student in the light of

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the educational choices that are open to him choices in the courses that are open to him that term as well as next year and the choice of which program of studies the student undertakes and its articulation with the senior institution. We are particularly concerned here with the student's potential success. Just as we feel that high school performance is a good indicator of college success, we must also be concerned with performance while the student is in attendance at the junior college. Williamson (1960) has criticized counselors for their lack of development of prediction techniques. Raines (1965) pointed out that the single largest missing ingredient in the business of academic transfer counseling from junior colleges is detailed experience data to describe the four year college to which the student is transferring. Such data can only be obtained through follow-up procedures. Hemmerling (1958) demonstrated a follow-up technique that sends the junior college counselors in search of their transfer students and holds a conference with each to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the college program. While in most cases such a program would be too expensive and time consuming it does demonstrate to some extent the felt need for counseling evaluation.

A second kind of junior college counseling should involve vocational counseling. There is some problem as to whether a vocational student will remain a vocational student or whether an academic student will remain an academic student. Consequently we need to be aware and give both vocational and educational counseling to students. Specifically with terminal students in vocational programs counselors must keep up to date on the local and national employment picture, the student's vocational qualifications, and the matching of the two. Most counselors are poorly prepared in this area. Glib interpretations of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank or the

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Kuder plus percentile ranks is not vocational counseling (Collins, 1967). Collins goes on to point out that counselors are experts in putting students in courses after the student tells the counselor what is to be his vocational goal. Staff (1961) does find that most junior colleges are concerned about vocational counseling in some form. Not only is this task difficult in both the tracking of the labor market and differentiating between various student abilities, aptitudes, and interests, but it is difficult to remain creative in the continuous press of change in the world of work.

The third area, personal counseling. receives the most treatment in the literature, however in actual practice it may be more limited. Fordyce (1966) states that there are never enough counselors to go around. The problem is that many counselors see themselves as clinicians (Stefflre, 1967) when they are not, thus they become somewhat ineffective. Counseling at the present leaves much to be desired (Collins 1967). We do not mean to infer from the above that personal counseling is so poor in junior colleges that it should be discarded. We mean only to enter some realism into the matter of counseling programs. We feel that counselors in the junior college need to concern themselves with being catalysts in the penetrating investigation of student values. Counselors must have a tough logical mind in helping students evaluate themselves. Counselors need at times to advise as well as reflect; in essence counseling is teaching of a specialized sort and fits within the educational purposes of the college.

Provision must be made for students who seek either on their own or by referral the opportunity of personal-social counseling by adequately trained personnel. We once heard a junior college president remark that his students lived at home with their parents. Such a belief seems

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incredible in the light of what we know about the science of human behavior today. Such a philosophy will certainly deprive the student of an opportunity for self education.

Ideally a guidance program is so designed that it is not only visible to the student but accessible. A definite procedure for referrals from faculty members must be initiated. Through in-service education programs, the counseling staff must educate the faculty concerning the services available. A referral procedure should be as uncomplicated as possible. A referral form may be used (Figure 1) on which the faculty member fills out the information requested and sends it to the counselors who do the follow-up. It is important to keep the faculty member "tuned in" to the outcome of his referral. Other referrals to the counselors may be from the students themselves or outside agencies.

Individual counseling is done in most junior colleges according to a wide spectrum of theoretical models and philosophical objectives. Because of the increasing interest in group counseling processes some summarizing of trends seems in order. Hardee (1959) feels that group methods should be used when the number of advisees are too large for the trained staff. Cohn (1966) also points out that group methods are an integral technique of the busy counselor. It is implied that individual counseling could possibly be supplanted by the group processes. The above authors are careful to point out that group counseling should not be used merely to displace the individual interview, but as another tool for the guidance function. It is possible that the group processes, if done effectively, can be more time consuming and demanding on the part of the counselor than individual student interviewing.

Many guidance and counseling functions lend themselves readily to group methods. Pre-admissions advising and orientation are notable

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examples. Other uses for group methods are: Dickerson (1966) and Gilbreath (1967) have demonstrated changes in under-achievers to non-underachievers and Wenborn (1965) has found that short-term group guidance lead to higher grade point averages, increased self-expression, and increased self-understanding over an extended period of time as compared with non-counseled. Catron (1966) found that educational-vocational group counseling produced a significant change of self in the direction of "good" adjustment. These studies all involved college populations. Group methods of all types hold great potentials for junior college workers.

We should mention here the need for counselor records. Through the in-take procedures stress simplicity, organized functional records should be kept. These counselor notes, tapes, and case materials should not be put in the student's cumulative records due to the public accessibility to those records. It may be that for legal reasons counselors do not wish to keep "official" case studies, but if we are to be effective in dealing with students over a period of time some sort of record of each conference should be kept (Figure II). Not only does such a compilation of data help in the evaluation of the total counseling service, but it aids our own procedure~~s~~ in dealing with the many students that we see.

In terms of the administration of junior college counseling and guidance services, most colleges designate some one person as the "director" or similar title to coordinate the program. The number of counselors needed besides the director range from 1:250 to 1:1000 depending on the student population and the use of faculty members.

It is important to note that guidance and counseling while it has its own "shop" is intricately involved with the rest of the campus if it is to be effective. One approach is a centralized program (O'Bannon, 1966) which

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operates out of a single office area. A second plan is a decentralized approach (Harvey, 1967) which places counselors in the various college programs around the college. The centralized approaches seem to be in greater frequency. Other organizational structures provide for levels of counselors. One plan (Tweedie, 1961) provides for the admissions counseling level, resident advisors, breadth level counselors, depth level therapists, and the non-college specialists. Some programs are integrated with psychology courses (Valett, 1958; O'Bannon, 1966) in self understanding. We feel that what ever the approach it must be organized, purposeful, and easily identifiable to the student.

F. IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Our point of view in this section is that there are at least three directions in which in-service education should be pointed. In the first place, a survey of the literature suggests that the junior college faculty should to some extent be involved in meeting student needs. If counseling is to utilize the faculty in some way, in-service training for them is required. Secondly, articulation with high school counselors and senior institutions is, also, a matter of in-service training in which junior college counselors should be involved. Thirdly, in-service training must be an integral part of the professional growth and development of junior college counselors. With the exception of the third area of in-service training, little is apparently written. There are numerous comments and references to the need for such training, but little or no detailed information.

It is fairly common to utilize the services of faculty members in the advisement of students. It is, however, pointed out that not all faculty are suited by temperament, training or desire to be an advisor (Hardee, 1959). The selection of faculty members for assisting in the counseling-advising role should be made on the basis of three criteria: 1) their interest in counseling, 2) their ability to deal effectively on a one to one basis with students, and 3) their willingness to learn the fundamentals of counseling responsibilities (Hardee, 1957). Starr (1961), as indicated earlier, recommends the use of faculty members in the counseling and advising functions particularly when their discipline is involved. We concur in the notion that some selection of faculty members by a defined criteria is necessary. The junior college should avoid the hazard of of assigning students to faculty advisors who do not take very seriously this responsibility, who consider advisement an intrusion on their time or who are satisfied to be nothing more than schedule checkers.

Following the careful selection of faculty members who will participate in the counseling-advising function, they must be trained. It would be helpful if at this point we could refer to specific programs as examples of the kind of in-service training programs that are being used. However, such detail is not available to us at this time and it very likely does not exist in any published form. One suggested list of in-service training activities comes from Staff (1961). In-service training programs should include extension courses, field training, on-campus courses and opportunities for observation. These activities should involve both selected faculty members who participate in advisement and counseling along with the counselors of an institution. To some degree, high school counselors or representatives of the area counselors might also be included in some of these training programs.

It is further recommended that the faculty who are involved in these activities and services should be granted release time. If this is not possible perhaps some other form of compensation might be offered. It is unrealistic to expect efficiency and effective counseling-advisement if these functions are viewed as incidental.

At this point it might be helpful to refer to the position of E. G. Williamson (1961) regarding persons involved in personnel work. He says: "We do not argue that all personnel workers should be professionally trained counselors. However, it would be to their advantage in terms of effectiveness, if they experienced at least rudimentary professional training not only in interviewing, but in counseling interviewing which includes supervised analysis of the effects of counseling." The necessity for using faculty members along with professional counselors in counseling and advising in the face of huge enrollments requires a carefully planned and executed in-service training program.

A student who is in scholastic difficulty calls for a close cooperation of counselors and instructors. When selected faculty are involved in student personnel functions and counselors are teaching this cooperation is most visible. Aware of the complementary nature of their roles, classroom teachers and counselors are joining forces as before to improve their individual and combined contributions to the development of young people (AP GA, 1965). The basics of this team approach are: communication, understanding, confidence and cooperation. Through an in-service training of teachers and counselors, this cooperative-team effort may be highlighted in the junior college as it is in other areas of education.

Since articulation is covered in greater detail elsewhere in this paper and in this section, we will not devote much time to it, here. Let it suffice to say that this is a type of in-service training and counselors should be involved in the planning, execution and evaluation of this important aspect of junior college existence.

Finally, it is important to say that no amount of formal training can compensate for an inadequate personality of a counselor (Alderson, 1961). It is further believed that a professional counselor who does not continue to develop and increase his knowledge of human beings on the job, apart from formal training, is not very professional. Therefore, it is extremely important that the director of counseling services of the junior college be charged with the responsibility of planning in-service training for counselors, and other professional staff members. The Carnegie Report concludes essentially that the preparation and growth of student personnel workers is generally not good. It is reasonably clear that if formal training is not doing the job of preparing junior college counselors for their work, the colleges in the movement will necessarily have to provide the training specifically focusing on the junior college through in-service training programs.

Specifically it is noted that counselors are poorly prepared to successfully do vocational counseling with skill (Collins, 1965). Most counselors see themselves as specialists in educational counseling (advisement). It is true that they are generally better informed in this regard than faculty. At the same time no one can deny that vocational and educational counseling are inextricably related functions. If the two are not in the counseling process,the student is often left indifferent to achievement and may very likely drop out.

The following is a list of needs in the preparation and in-service training of junior college counselors and student personnel workers (Matson, 1965):

1) The need or desirability of specific preparation for junior college personnel workers.
2) The need to develop both specialists and generalists.
3) Junior college personnel workers need extensive knowledge and skills in their area.
4) Preparation programs must be diverse and flexible.
5) Preparation programs of all types should be research oriented.
6) Student personnel workers should be required an equivalent level of competence as other educational levels.
7) Administrative levels in student personnel services requires the doctorate or its equivalent.
8) There must be provisions for an extensive and on-going program of training.

With the rapid growth of the junior college movement it is understandable that preparation specifically for counseling services in this context lag behind. However, students in the junior colleges today cannot wait for counselor's skills and preparation to evolve. Through formal preparation and specifically through in-service training programs, counseling and guidance must prepare now for the job that is to be done.

G. STUDENT PERSONNEL EVALUATION

It is impossible to develop any program or service that meets the needs of individual students and the community without establishing procedures for evaluation,control and followup. No organization can develop or be effective without devoting a considerable amount of time to determining what it has done, where it is and where it must go. In a word, counseling and guidance personnel in the junior college cannot avoid self evaluation if it seeks to be effective.

Studies done for the Carnegie Report conclude that junior college students have generally not been dissatisfied with the counseling services offered them but at the same time they expressed the feeling that improvements could be made (Medsker, 1965). The chief criticism has been the lack of counselor time - time per student, time for repeated interviews, time to keep up-to-date with respect to curriculum requirements and job opportunities, and time for follow-up activities. It would appear to us that students are being kind. There is considerable indication that faculty members wonder "what counselors really do". Even counselors have difficulty in defining their roles in any concrete, rational and meaningful way (Berry & Wolfe, 1957)

One writer sees a counselor as the marginal man (Stefflre, 1967). Is he a psychologist, an administrator (aspiring), a kind of office worker or what? It is questionable how committed the counselor is to his occupation, to the goals of the institution or to his relationship to his clients. The lack of uniform definitions of what counseling in the educational context really is and the criticisms that students and faculty make of this function certainly points up the urgent need for evaluation.

There is perhaps no single best way to evaluate counseling and guidance services. Evaluation is a function that must be developed within the staff of the college. The process may follow the classis pattern of scientific inquiry: 1) state the purposes of the program - best with faculty and student help; 2) establish the criteria by which the success of the program will be judged; 3) apply the criteria and interpret the evidence that accumulates (Dobbin and Turnbull, 1965). Only individual colleges can asses or evaluate their counseling operation. No one else can do it for them. Throughout the Report To The Carnegie Corporation, assessment is made of student personnel programs and the state of the junior college nationally. This is extremely valuable, but again individual colleges must do their own self study and gear up to continue this process.

Following the scientific approach suggested by Dobbin and Turnbull (1965) above, junior college counseling services must continually ask themselves questions similar to the following:

1) Do we have qualified counselors with definitely assigned time on the schedule for individual counseling? Do students seek assistance from these counselors?
2) Do we have planned group guidance with class groups or small discussion groups? Are staff members responsible for group counseling, prepared for it and qualified?
3) Do we provide adequate individual inventory services? Are test results and other informations used to improve understanding?
4) Are our information services - occupational, educational, personal-social, how to study information and so forth - adequate, accessible to students and used?
5) What role should counseling service personnel play in orientation? What is the challenge of orientation functions to counselors?
6) Do we or should we provide counseling and guidance services to the community and to all students enrolled - day and night, youth and adult?
7) How well have we articulated our function to faculty, staff and community? Do these persons and us have a clear notion of what our function and role is?
8) What "machinery" should we set up for continuous evaluation?

The foregoing is not intended to be a complete guideline for self-evaluation. However, we feel that these questions suggest a beginning point for the process of evaluation. Counselors will add and subtract as the individual situations require.

Of course, an inseparable element in evaluation is follow-up. What do students do when they leave the college? What is their evaluation of counseling services? Do they feel that counseling and guidance was helpful? Hemmerling (1958) reports an extra-effort type of follow-up. Each counselor went to the state universities and interviewed each transfer student concerning their junior college program. This kind of follow-up may be accomplished in all areas - vocational, educational - where former students are found. This effort in our judgment represents "action" evaluation and follow-up. Any institution committed to individuality, as the junior college claims to be, must demonstrate this committment. This is one method of doing just that even though it would require considerable effort and expense.

We would agree that institutions of higher education in this day cannot long survive without being to some degree research oriented. However, it is logical that if research does not result in evaluation and action to improve, build and develop an effective educational system, meeting the needs of individual students and communities, research is a meaningless waste of time, effort, and money.

H. COMMUNITY SERVICES

The community college idea presupposes an increase of services from within the community to the college will correspond to an increase of services from the college to the community (Reynolds, 1956). With this idea in mind community guidance services involves both college and community resources and they are conducted for the purpose of meeting specified educational needs of individuals or enterprises within the college or the community.

If the guidance and counseling function is organized under a true community junior college philosophy, we feel that the staff has an obligation to the community to function as a resource to that community. It is not the intent of the college to usurp the operation and service of any existing organization within the community. We are concerned with broadening the educational services to individuals and community organizations. The development of a community guidance service program requires constant and effective communication between the community and the college. This communication requires a firm commitment by the administration and staff to the concept of community service.

Medsker (1960) found that 90% of 243 colleges studied offered some kind of community service program. Reynolds (1958) also found that many colleges are extending counseling services to non-college persons in the community sometimes on a fee basis. There seems to be a trend toward a gradual fading of the line between membership and non-membership in the community college in the areas that are being served by the college (Blocker, 1965). We have found that within the budget and staff limitations the guidance and counseling staff is moving in the direction both of offering services to the community as well as utilizing area resources.

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What services can the guidance and counseling staff offer the community? (1) Orange Coast Junior College (Valett, 1958) has established an extensive program of vocational, personal, and educational testing. Non-students may take these tests and receive both interpretation and counseling without cost. It was stated that many groups have availed themselves of these services. Some junior colleges have been instrumental in initiating a testing program for local high schools (Kildow, 1953). Most colleges will give tests to non-students if requested to do so by a community agency. Williamson (Raines, 1965) is concerned that guidance workers should initiate a testing program for high school students before they come to college to help them decide if college is where they should go and also to help them clarify their vocational goals. (2) All types of counseling are offered many times on a referral basis. St. Johns Junior College in Florida regularly held marital group counseling at the request of a local mental health worker. School counselors on occasion request that a college counselor consult with them about a problem student. We feel it is important that junior college counselors avoid becoming identified only as clinicians, but serve a broader educational function. The variation of types of counseling services is large. If the staff makes it known that they will act as resources, they will be called upon if they are effective. (3) The junior college can use its own facilities to encourage guidance workshops and conferences for the area high school counselors. (4) Since the college has developed an organized compilation of occupational information, it seems logical that the community should be able to take advantage of this resource. (5) Hoyt (1966) is concerned that college counselors work closely with area vocational school personnel. (6) Other areas that counselors can aid in is

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the desimination of college information, and arranging visits for groups to the college. We feel it is of major importance to work closely with area guidance workers in developing total programs for reaching the prospective students both young or old who wish to continue their education.

What services can the junior college exact from the community? Most guidance texts carry exhaustive lists of community resources. The community college guidance worker should ideally have at his finger tips information and a contact source for all educational institutions, industry, labor unions, business, professions, and social agencies in the area with whom students may come into contact. If active lines of communication have been established, the counselor should be constantly aware of potential resources for both referrals for individuals that need more complete counseling or occupational information and information concerning job trends, qualifications, and job vacancies. An example most widely given in the literature is the aptitude testing done by the state employment agencies for junior college students if requested by the counselors.

In developing a community service program two questions must be answered: (1) What are the needs that junior college students experience that community resources can aid? (2) What are the needs of the community in relation to the potential resources of the college? The development of an effective program involves much innovation and creativity on the part of both the college and community. Each junior college must evaluate in terms of its own budget, available staff and student load, and its general philosophy of how much time can be spent in community services. We feel that the junior college has an obligation to avail its own resources to the community, in so much that the college does not become ineffective in both areas. Williamson (Smith, 1966) has pointed out that junior college guidance workers have a potentially important role as change

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agents with the community. The community in turn has an obligation to aid in the organization and implementation of needed change.

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REFFERAL FORM - COUNSELING CENTER

Student's name ____

Reason for Referral:

_______academic counseling

_______personal counseling

_______vocational and/or educational counseling

Have you asked this student to arrange for an interview with the counselor?_________

Have you referred this student to a particular counselor?_______

Whom?____________________________

Do you want the counselor to ask the student to come in for an interview?__________

Comments:

Signature__________________________

Figure I

ST. JOHNS RIVER PERSONNEL SERVICES

Client______________________St. No.________Initial Interview Date__________

Counselor__________________Being Seen In: Group______Individually____

Referral Source:

Self__________

Teacher ____________
(name)

Parent_______________________

Other_______________________
(name)

Reason for Referral:

(Personal, Educational or Vocational counseling)______________

____

Brief Summary of Problem____

____

Impression of Client Movement:____

____

Disposition of Case:____

____

Recommendations:____

____

Termination Date:______________________

Figure II

STUDENT ACTIVITIES IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

Clark R. Beck, Elmer G. Fangman, and Thomas E. Malin

INTRODUCTION

Student activities are important parts of student personnel programs in junior colleges. This study is an attempt to indicate this importance through a review of the literature in the field, through study of selected junior college documents, student handbooks, and from personal experience in student activities.

The writers wish to acknowledge their appreciation to Dr. Max Raines for providing the basic outline used in this study. In addition, Dr. Raines provided resource materials which were particularly useful in the chapter on the Administration of Student Activity Programs.

The term "junior college" as used throughout this study refers to publicly supported two-year colleges. No attempt was made to analyze, report, or evaluate student activity programs in the private junior college.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDENT ACTIVITY PROGRAM

The activities of college students across America have been the source of voluminous magazine and newspaper articles, radio and television reports, as well as seminars, conferences, and other meetings in an attempt to discuss, analyze, and evaluate their actions and activities. The overwhelming portion of this attention has been given to the students' "out of class" activities and interests. It would seem that the involvement of students in determining the total campus climate is greater today than ever before. The responsibility to coordinate and supervise many of these activites rests with the student personnel division and specifically with the Office of Student Activities.

Blocker, Plummer, and Richardson (1965) have reported that:

> The existence of student activities and the desirability of having the college supervise and sponsor these activities is a subject of little controversy. Not so clear is the relationship that these activities have to the academic program and their function in the total college progress.

To many people, "student activities" suggests noneducational activities which take up entirely too much of the students' time. Realistically, a comprehensive program of student activities includes a wide range of activities and programs to meet the "out of class" interests of the student body in an attempt to support the educational objective of the full development of students. Whether these programs are called student activities, extra- or co-curricular activities, or the "third curriculum", generally the value of these activities has been accepted as an important part of the students' college experience.

In describing the educational objectives of student activities, Shoben (1958) referred to them as:

> . . . helping students to gain greater personal maturity through reflected-upon experience, increasing their interpersonal effectiveness, deepening their sensitivity to human needs including their own, clarifying their long range objectives in both vocational and more personal terms, and assisting in their interpretation of education both in their active student careers and their lives after graduation.

Mueller (1961) has discussed the function of student activities by suggesting basic objectives of a student activity program and they are summarized as follows:

> (1) a favorable continuation of the socialization process of the individual; (2) opportunities for experiences in good group interaction and relationships; and (3) the development of leaders--for leadership on the campus and in later life.

The community junior college, along with other institutions of higher learning, attempts to implement the previously mentioned statements of philosophy and objectives through an organized program of student activities. The methods and procedures in the junior college will differ from those used in other institutions because of the uniqueness of the institutional goals and the special characteristics of the junior college student population.

What are some of the special problems or features with which a junior college student activity program must contend? What characteristics of the students in the junior college differentiate them from students on the more traditional, residential college or university setting? Some of these special features are as follows:

(1) Most junior college students are commuters. A few junior colleges provide dormitories, but the vast majority of students live at home with their parents or families. Consequently, they spend less time on campus, have less time for program planning and participation, and tend to become less involved when compared to university students. Transportation back to campus is often a problem.

(2) The majority of community junior college students hold outside employment. A study at Flint Community Junior College (1966) revealed that 76% of the students held full or part time jobs in addition to their classes.

(3) The tenure of most junior college students is generally two years. The lack of continuity in leadership positions and the amount of time for leadership training is limited since the students are in attendance for only this short length of time.

(4) Student activity programs in the metropolitan area junior colleges are often forced to compete with the social, cultural, and recreational events of the city.

(5) The very nature of the make-up of the student body challenges even the best junior college student activity program. Many students are married and have family responsibilities; activities of interest to technical and

vocational students present special problems; many students maintain a strong allegiance to their former high schools, particularly their athletic events.

(6) Many junior colleges have yet to develop attractive facilities in which to conduct their activity programs. The availability of facilities is often a hindrance due to the evening and community programs.

(7) School spirit, traditions, allegiance, and loyalty to the junior college on the part of the student body is most often conspicuous by its absence.

This is by no means an exhaustive list of the special features of a junior college student activity program. It does, however, indicate some problem areas of concern for the student activity director in the junior college.

The "model" student activity program for junior colleges has yet to be developed; therefore, the challenge remains. Frederick (1965) has stated;

> As clear as anything in the future is the prospect of continued development of student activities. They will not disappear. In fact, they will increase in variety and importance. More and more student unions are being built. The many junior and community colleges which were founded in the 1950's and 1960's all made provisions for athletics, sports, and dramatics. Offices for student governments and publications are common facilities.

The important task of those in positions of leadership in the student activity programs will be to analyze and evaluate the activities, programs, projects, and opportunities for service by students and to ascertain that they are based on sound educational principles and objectives to promote, for their students, an integrated educational experience.

THE ADMINISTRATION AND OPERATION OF A STUDENT ACTIVITY PROGRAM

Junior colleges provide for and encourage student activities. The goals are to encourage among students the development of humanitarian values, the fostering of effective citizenship, and the provisions of opportunities for self-development. Organizations are maintained and promoted by the college which provide for the social, intellectual, recreational, and professional needs of interested students. It becomes the task of the director to administer the student activity program within the framework of the objectives and goals of the institution.

While individual junior colleges have consistently styled their student activity program to meet their own particular needs, there is a body of common characteristics in the organization, implementation, and goals of most programs. The role of the advisor, coordinator, or director of student activities also varies from campus to campus not only in title, but in responsibility and authority as well. The use of the title "director" will be used throughout this discussion to signify the administrative staff member in charge of the student activity program.

Organizational Structure

The organizational structure of a student activity program must provide for and permit a variety of activities and experiences. Bloland (1967) has aptly expressed:

> By the term "student activities" is meant the programs and projects sponsored by organized groups although actually it subsumes non-organized pursuits as well. In considering participation in student activities as a learning experience, room must be made for both organized and non-organized activities in the same tent, since the influence of both upon the individual's learning experience must be recognized.

The line of responsibility for the program is normally delegated by the board of control to the president, who delegates it to the dean of student personnel, who in turn passes it on to the director of student activities. He then often delegates specific responsibilities to the student organizations.

Blocker, Plummer, and Richardson (1965) have indicated that the key to the coordinated control of student activities rests with the student council for it is possible to permit students much freedom in the conduct of their activities provided that areas of responsibility and authority are clearly delineated and that authority commensurate with responsibility is delegated.

Student government councils are traditionally the highest student authority on campus. These councils are established as the representative organization of the student body and are delegated responsibility for such activities as the recognition and chartering of other student organizations, establishing scholastic standards for student officials, exercising control over the expenditure of student activity fees, and the legislation of other matters of concern to the student body. The councils often have large responsibilities for programming such as concerts, dances, and visiting speakers of interest to the students. A study by McAninch (1967), to determine the present practices used in organizing and administering student governments in the public junior colleges in the North Central Accrediting Region, reported that 97% of the councils surveyed had written constitutions of authority; 73% require other student organizations to petition the council for recognition; and 75% exercise some control over the expenditure of collected student activity fees.

Under the responsibility of the student government council are additional student organizations such as a publications board, college union board, inter-club council, and the inter-fraternity or inter-sorority council. Their responsibility is to coordinate the activities and programs of the remaining student clubs and organizations. (There may be other boards and committees composed of students, faculty, and administration who operate within the framework of the student activity organization to promote discussion and recommendations for the operation of the program.)

Recommendations for programming, scheduling of events, physical facility arrangements, and legislation on policies and procedures are passed from the organizations to the student government council and are referred to the director of student activities for information, implementation, or approval.

Blocker, Plummer, and Richardson (1965) have idealized the process very clearly as follows: "Properly administered student activities are models of the democratic process. As such, they represent an invaluable aid in the education of students for life in a democracy."

Professional Staff

One of the most serious drawbacks in the operation of student activities in the junior college is the shortage of professionally trained staff allocated to the administration and supervision of the program. Raines (1965) has recommended the following staff qualifications for student activity personnel:

> Supervisory Level. A master's degree in behavioral sciences, student personnel work, or recreation with additional graduate work in group process, educational philosophy, and the legal aspect of student activities.
>
> Non-Supervisory Level. Master's degree in behavioral sciences, student personnel work, or recreation.
>
> The following recommended staffing pattern is based on a careful analysis of the assigned functions and related activities within each administrative unit as well as man hours required of the staff:

Administrative Unit	Staff Level	Enrollment (head count)			
		500	1000	2500	5000
Student Activities	Supervisory	1	1	1	1
	Non-Supervisory	0	0	½	1
	Clerical	½	1	1	1

Too often, instead of having a director of activities, counselors or faculty members are given released time or extra pay to supervise or administer the activity program and are therefore severely limited by the amount of time they can reasonably devote to the program.

Another procedure is for the director of activities to have extra responsibilities. Malin (1967) stated:

> Professional staff tend to have shared responsibilities for other areas such as the student center operation, counseling, athletics, intramurals, business operations, etc. The student activity program and the college union program are often under the same hat. This appears to be a current pattern in the junior college.

The strong reliance for program personnel rests with students and student activity organizations. A professional staff must rely on the student's desire to be of service to the college in order to carry out a successful program of student activities.

Faculty members serve as advisors to student organizations, consultants and resource persons, and devote many hours to activity committees and boards. Their support and interest in invaluable.

A successful staff member is a "generalist" with training in student personnel work. He is an individual who is dedicated to the philosophy of the comprehensive junior college and who has the strength and flexibility to adjust to a myriad of different situations.

Financial Operations

It is necessary for the director to supervise the expenditures of student fees and funds. The assessment of a student activity fee is an accepted practice in junior colleges. Howes(1965) reported the average annual cost of the student activity fee on the eighty-eight junior college campuses surveyed was $23.00 with a range from $1.00 to $60.00. The amount of the student activity fee on some campuses is difficult to determine since it is included in tuition fees.

The establishment of an accounting or bookkeeping system is necessary in order to keep adequate financial records for student organizations. Many campuses use student treasurers as the bookkeepers with supervision of the transactions by the director. This method provides an opportunity to train students in budget preparation, simple bookkeeping, and financial procedures. It also expresses an attitude of trust in the student's ability to handle the funds with honesty and integrity.

Lastly, the director has the responsibility to organize and plan the total student activity budget and to make regular reports on the financial status of the student organizations. The budget should include expenditures by the office of student activities per se, to provide for leadership training, student retreats and workshops, resource materials, and travel expenses to professional meetings and conferences.

General Policies and Regulations

The administering of a program of student activities includes the responsibility for the publication of policies and procedures for student organizations. This publication establishes the base from which student groups implement their activities and includes the procedures by which they operate. It would necessarily include the policies and regulations pertaining to student publications, outside speakers, delegation of responsibilities, election procedures, off campus programs, awards, eligibility, student leader and advisor responsibility, use of equipment, finances, calendaring of activities, publicity solicitations, reserving facilities, as well as other needed procedures depending upon the local situation and local needs. Constitutions of the all-campus organizations could be appropriately included.

The practice of publishing these policies and procedures provides an adequate and important guide for student officers and organizations in the carrying out of their responsibilities.

The administration and operation of a student activity program may include the supervision of campus facilities and student employees.

Frederick (1965) has stated, "The student's non-classroom activities are of real and immediate importance. Whatever the reason, it is a fact that in such activities students find meaning now." For example, "the Festival of Arts has to be ready next weekend--and it will be enjoyed next Saturday night, not five or six years from now." It is this sense of immediacy and urgency which pervades the student activity program and challenges the very fiber of the professional student personnel worker to do his best in the administration, supervision, and operation of the student activity program.

THE SOCIAL REGULATORY FUNCTION

The McConnell Report to the Carnegie Corporation (1965) defines the social regulatory function as those activities of the college designed to establish and maintain policies, procedures, and regulations for control of social behavior of individual students and student groups.

Blocker et al. (1965) point out that the student needs social information. Entering students of two year colleges have many questions regarding what constitutes socially acceptable behavior in a variety of situations. According to Raines and McDaniel (1965), the promotion of student growth requires the development of standards of expectancy and the reinforcement of individual motivation by college regulations.

If it is agreed that social regulations are a responsibility of the college, the next question becomes, who specifically is responsible?

Fordyce, Shepard, and Collins (1965) observe that student personnel workers are directly involved in teaching social skills, in working with and through student groups to achieve the social and educational objectives of the co-curriculum, and in developing higher values and standards of taste and behavior in the student body.

The student personnel staff, especially those responsible for the direction of the social program, student activities, and living units, will be involved in such specific assignments as: (1) developing policies and regulations for the maintenance of personal social standards of conduct, (2) handling cases of social misconduct and violations of the rules of group living, and (3) interpreting regulations to students and faculty.

Shaffer and Martinson (1966) point out the need for faculty members to participate in the establishment of policies pertaining to student activities since these are an integral part of the college educational program.

A look at a specific college would perhaps give a better view of the practical application of social regulations. Flint Community Junior College, Flint, Michigan, states its regulations in the college catalog. They say that enrollment in their college carries with it obligations in regard to conduct both inside and outside the classrooms. It is also stated that students are expected to conduct themselves in such a manner as to be a credit both to themselves and to the College. In addition, students at Flint Community Junior College are responsible to the laws governing the community as well as to the rules and orders of the College and its officials, and they are expected to observe the standards of conduct set by the College. In terms of classroom behavior, instructors may drop from class any student who has had an excessive number of absences or whose classroom conduct is improper. Students are referred to the proper administrative official for disciplinary action. In addition to the general standards established, specific regulations will be necessary and should be arrived at cooperatively by school officials, faculty, and students at each college.

The nature of disciplinary action is conditioned by the seriousness of the offense, and, at Flint Community Junior College, may be classified in one of the following categories: (1) official warning, (2) disciplinary probation, (3) suspension, or (4) expulsion. Disciplinary action is considered a means of educating the student to the realities of his responsibility as a citizen and also to protect the welfare of students, staff, and the community.

Public junior colleges have not had the concern with due process as have many of the larger four year institutions. The time is undoubtedly coming, however, when they will find it necessary to follow the essentials of a "fair hearing" as prescribed by due process.

Educational institutions must find a way to guide young people to social relations that are personally satisfying yet consonant with traditional ideals. Frederick (1965) suggests that the solution lies in striking a balance with the following principles: (1) students have rights as well as desires, and ideals; (2) schools and colleges have some part of the responsibility for the moral if not the spiritual welfare of the young; (3) since parents pay the bills, they, too, have rights and hopes and ideals.

Not all of the social regulations of students are imposed by the educational institution. There are unofficial regulations in operation which are passed on from returning students to new students. Peer pressure is a very effective way of regulating social behavior. The traditions and mores regulating student behavior on a given campus are often kept in operation more by the students themselves than by officials of the institution. This is more difficult on a junior college campus because a larger portion of the student body is new each year and because all of the students are there for a shorter period of time.

An unanticipated finding of the McConnell Report (1965) was that a strong social regulatory function differentiated the strongest student activity program more than any other single function.

THE CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITY FUNCTION

Student activities, according to Blocker et al. (1965), provide opportunities to learn social skills and techniques for more effective participation in society. Membership in organized groups can result in social acceptance and recognition, which tends to enhance feelings of self worth and to stimulate additional effort. Finally, student activities teach skills and cultivate interests which promote the worthy use of leisure time.

It would seem that opportunities allowing for these benefits can best be provided through the co-curricular function of the student activity program.

Objectives

The objectives of campus student organizations will vary from one campus to another as the needs of the students served will vary. However, the objectives expressed at Florissant Valley Community College, St. Louis, Missouri, would be common to many community colleges. They are: (1) to provide the opportunity for translation of classroom experience into co-curricular life; (2) to help students in the establishment of their own personal "identities"; (3) to enable students to successfully develop initiative, skills, and leadership ability; (4) to assist in the development of social and cultural attributes through social involvement.

Types of Organizations

There is a wide variety of student organizations and clubs on the junior college campuses. These can be identified as follows:

Honorary societies. These organizations exist in both academic and service areas and membership would depend upon meeting the specific requirements established by the organization.

Interest organizations. These organizations will be both departmental and avocational in nature and membership will be determined by special interests of the students. Examples of this type organization would be a science club or a chess club.

Student leadership organizations. Organizations of this type would provide a leadership or coordination function as determined by the entire student activity program. Examples would be an inter-club council or an inter-fraternity council. The official student government organization of the campus would also fit in this group.

Sports organizations. These organizations would be concerned with promoting a specific sport or all sports at the college. They would include such things as a lettermen's club and a booster club.

Student publications. Student publications might include a student newspaper, a year book, pictorial magazine, literary magazine, or student newsletters.

Religious organizations. Campus religious groups, as discussed in Off to College (1967), provide a valuable service in helping students make friends, adjust to classes, and in general provide the type of understanding and spiritual help needed to insure fruitful college years. Examples would be the Wesley Foundation, Newman Club, and Baptist Student Union.

Political organizations. These organizations will likely provide activities to those students whose political interests are aligned with those of a particular party. More importantly, however, they provide leadership experience and opportunities for involvement in the American democratic process. Examples would be the Young Democrats and Campus Republicans.

Social organizations. The primary purpose of these organizations would be to provide social functions for its members; however, they should also be of service to the college and to the community. Examples would be fraternities and sororities where they rarely serve a residence function on a community college campus.

Faculty Advisor

Blocker et al. (1965) feel that in the final analysis much of the responsibility for the success of a program of student activities in the two year college must rest with the faculty advisor. Because the student is in attendance only a short time, the advisor has a more difficult task in insuring continuity than is the case in four year institutions. Under these circumstances, it is often a temptation for faculty advisors to become supervisors. When such temptations arise, advisors would do well to remember that one of the purposes of student activities is to provide students with experience in democratic living. Democracies are noted for their ability to correct errors rather than for a propensity for not making them. By encouraging student leaders to seek his counsel, by setting an enthusiastic example, and by making systematic evaluations, the faculty advisors can insure that the student activity program, far from being a "frill", is making a solid contribution toward the implementation of the goals of the institution.

The Student Activity Procedural Manual of Florissant Valley Community College states what it means to be a faculty advisor on their campus. An advisor is an integral part of every organization. Without an advisor a campus organization has no authority to meet or even to exist. These advisors volunteer to work with student groups because they are interested; it is a contribution they make in addition to their regular teaching duties. The advisor should be given the respect and consideration that his position and willingness to assist the group deserves. Just as the group has responsibilities to the advisor, so does the advisor have responsibilities to the group and to the college. He should be familiar with college policies and regulations, and with the Constitution of the Student Senate and of the organization which he advises, and he should assist the officers and members in becoming acquainted with these policies. The advisor should encourage and assist the organization to carry on an active and significant program, and be available for various administrative responsibilities. He also needs to call to the attention of the officers of the organization serious failure of the organization or its members in assuming responsibilities and then assist them in overcoming these failures.

THE STUDENT SELF-GOVERNING FUNCTION

Student self-governing functions are:

> . . . those activities of the college designed to provide opportunities and encouragement for students to participate in self-governing activities that provide experiences in decision making through democratic processes.

The scope of student government includes not only the usual student senate and student body president, but also includes those specialized organizations such as the inter-fraternity council, the union board of directors, and the student court.

The purposes of student self-government as stated by Shaffer and Martinson (1966) emphasize communication, involvement, educationally sound experience, and order. Too often the communication and interpretation of these objectives to the students is done only through cleverly designed and colorfully printed flyers which frequently provide little useful information to the student.

Student government exists in a wide variety of formal structures. Clark and Trow (Newcomb & Wilson, 1966) describe the modal type as one in which student government is given the appearance of authority, but in fact has little control. Shaffer and Martinson (1966) contend the term itself is misleading in that students tend to think of student government as complete regulation of a specified area of college life. Shaffer and Martinson (1966), however, perceive the role of student government as participation, not control of the government of the institution, and they point out that student government is usually limited only by the competencies of the students themselves.

Raines and McDaniel (McConnell, 1965) found that when the student self-governing function was favorably implemented, the overall student personnel program was more likely to be rated a strong program.

Student Leadership

The junior college student is on the campus only nine months before he is pushed into leadership roles. This is a short time span for the student, if he is to be effective, to learn the in's and out's of the operations of the college. Unless continuous assistance is available, the student experiences frustration or loss of self-confidence. A specific person must be assigned to provide this needed support to the student leaders. In student self-government, this person is usually a member of the student personnel staff who must maintain a balance between the supervision of the college and the initiative of the students.

Democratic leadership must exist in the institution in order that students may experience and develop leadership. It is not enough for the students to learn about self-government; they must actually experience self-government. The experience of self-government occurs, according to Schleibaum (1962), when the students can do such things as control funds, plan and sponsor events, and regulate their own campus organizations.

The requirements to hold a position of leadership are varied. Often students are limited in the number of positions they can hold and frequently must maintain a specified grade point average. In some cases, leaders are elected for only one semester term

Some schools sponsor student leadership conferences (McKenna, 1960) in which students get both leadership experience and citizenship training. The heart of these conferences is a series of workshop sessions of small groups of students in which students consider in committee fashion, subjects ranging from the goals of the college to participation in club activities. A general session of all participants meets before to plan the workshop sessions and after the sessions to act on the recommendations from the sessions.

These conferences are commonly held prior to the beginning of school and can effectively include some freshmen students (McKenna, 1960) who have not yet been on campus, but whose records indicate leadership potential. The atmosphere of the conference should give the students an opportunity to interact with the administration and faculty during the workshop sessions without fear or anxiety.

In evaluating the results of a student leadership conference, McKenna (1960) states that these student leaders frequently make reference to the goals of the college and propose actions that indicate they have identified with the goals. But he states the greatest value is the early identification of student leaders and their encouragement to make leadership an important part of their education.

Priest (1959) indicates that unless positive steps are taken to involve as many students as possible in the activity programs, the socially sophisticated students quickly take over. The freshman student is given a choice of organizations to join, but he is rarely asked to actively participate.

For the development of leadership, Arbuckle (1953) contends that the faculty must communicate their belief that the students are able to take on responsibilities and that the faculty must show this in their daily contact with the students. Leadership as exhibited by the staff can be used as an effective model for the students. The application of the techniques of self-government should be experienced by the students in as wide a variety of settings as possible.

Clark and Trow (Newcomb & Wilson, 1966) state that an elaborate system of committees composed of students and faculty provides student involvement and participation. They indicate the actual participation by a few students is symbolic to all students and this encourages involvement, civic interest, and helps to commit students deeply to the college.

The organization of student personnel functions seems to be of importance when considering the effectiveness of its services. Hoyt and Raines (McConnell, 1965) state that only with student advisory and student self-government functions does there seem to be more effective implementation of the services when they are organized under student personnel as opposed to being organized under non-student personnel administration.

The programming for development of leadership in industry is considered of prime importance as can be seen by the amount of resources used in its development. Education, too, has marshaled its forces to develop leadership. Too often in the junior college the development of leadership has been neglected (McKenna, 1960).

THE CITIZENSHIP FUNCTION

The citizenship activity function of the college are "those activities designed to encourage student involvement in service and political activities of the community (McConnell, 1965)." The development of citizenship is not only a function of the student activity program, but is also a vital part of other areas of student personnel services and of the total institution.

The purpose of the citizenship function in the junior college is to help the student develop into a more complete and active participant of the college and the community. Havinghurst described this function as not only giving knowledge of civic affairs to people, but stated:

> It also includes a large non-intellectual aspect of building toward social cohesion by enlisting young people and mature adults in the interchange of ideas and experience relative to the problems of living in the modern community. (McConnell, 1965)

The development of citizenship is probably most obviously seen in student activities. The responsibility of the student personnel worker to assist the student in individual growth is seen by Priest (1959) to be implemented in two primary areas: (a) the counseling program, and (b) the activity program. Many devices are used by the junior college to give the student experiences in citizenship. Clubs are popular and serve to give the student membership as a citizen in a group; mock political conventions give the opportunity for symbolic participation in citizenship; speakers provide information on current issues, and community service activities provide actual citizenship experiences for students as members of a community.

The student personnel worker in the junior college often has difficulty getting the students to take an active part as citizens of the college. The concept that the junior college has among its goals the preparation of the student for complete participation in community life is not always understood by the members of the junior college. Students, and too often faculty members, see the junior college as only an obstacle course between the high school and the goals for which the students are reaching such as jobs, marriage, or upper division college courses. Medsker (1960) sees the problems complicated in the junior college by the limited time in attendance, the absence of mature students, and the tendency to retain identification with the home and established peer groups.

Pruitt (Klopf, 1966) states that the trend in activities is from big group activities to smaller personal identity groups. The location of the junior college in the community gives it a maximum opportunity to assist students to develop citizenship in action by actual participation in current community problems. The diversity of interests and current stage of development of each student makes it difficult to have one activity for everyone. This diversity can be used to advantage by giving the younger and less mature students an opportunity to become involved in actual practice of citizenship with the older and more mature students who may also serve as role models for the less mature.

The "fun and games" aspect of student activities does not offer the reality of citizenship experiences that can be found in community service and involvement. Pruitt (Klopf, 1966) pointed out the growing popularity of programs involving community action such as the tutorial programs and participation in civil rights activities.

Jacob (1957), in reporting a study by Garfield at Toledo University, gives an example of the effectiveness of citizenship experiences through the classroom. In a required course on citizenship all students were required to survey a voting precinct and predict the voting returns while knowing that the accuracy of their predictions would affect their grade. In a follow-up study twenty years later, it was found that 95% of the students in the citizenship class were registered voters, and of these, 92% had voted in the state elections of 1952. This is considerably above that of the general population.

A combination of academic studies and the active involvement of students in community problems often brings impressive results. Kelly (1966) reported that a course on community studies, involving the use of lectures, resource people from the community, and active exposure to the community problems, resulted in the urban renewal administrator establishing a number of internships for students in the urban renewal program.

The planning of a variety of activities which will give an opportunity for experience in citizenship is very necessary. This planning should be done with full student participation. The contributions which the junior college students can make to the implementation of the goals of student activities should not be overlooked.

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STUDENT FINANCIAL AID AND PLACEMENT SERVICES

Fred Frazier Don Perigo

Financial Aids and Placement have been aptly categorized as "service functions" within the student personnel area. Because of the special nature of the junior college, the effective organization and functioning of these services assume increasing importance.

The material which follows is intended to give an overview of financial aids and placement, with special attention to historical and philosophical sections, as well as to the organization and practice of these services at the junior college. In the financial aids section legislation, need analysis, student aid programs, and legal considerations are emphasized. In the placement section, emphasis is put on programs in the junior colleges, outlining procedures and services, and ethical considerations. This information is particularly addressed to students who are preparing for student personnel positions, as well as for other junior college administrators.

The term "junior college" as used throughout this paper refers to the publicly supported two-year college.

Staffing the Services

Often in the junior college setting the direction of placement activities and student financial aid are handled by one individual. The rationale is two-fold. First, there is considerable overlap between the services in assisting a student to locate part-time employment to help meet the costs of his education. Federally supported work-study programs have also increased the desirability of coordinating the two services. The second rationale relates to the peaking of the work load. Financial aid packaging generally is done in the summer months, with some continuation through September. The demands on staff time will be heaviest from July through September with a minor peaking again as a new semester is about to begin. Placement utilizes a higher proportion of staff time after September, with the peak coming in the Spring. Raines (1965) suggests that one individual can serve in both roles until the institution reaches an enrollment of 2,500 when the addition of a second professional staff member should be considered. Because of the crucial role the student personnel worker plays, he should have a blend of qualities and competencies consonant with service as a valuable staff member and as a public relations representative for the school. An effective program of community relations will be most important in the development of placement openings, in the cultivation of new sources of financial aid funds, and in the development of general support for the program of the college.

The College Financial Aid Service

The first financial aid award made to a student in an American university resulted in a tolling of bells on the campus of Harvard College. Actually the tolling of the bell was done by a student, the recipient of the financial aid award, fulfilling his work obligation for the award granted him. Financial assistance to students in institutions of higher education in the United States has come a long way since Lady Anne Mowlson gave Harvard College "the full and intire somme of hundred pownds current English mony" in 1643 (Van Dusen, 1966). Today, millions of dollars are allocated annually to help students finance their educations. Over three and one-half million students each year receive financial aid through college financial aid offices, some of which, annually administer funds greater than the assets of many banks.

Even though, historically, financial aid has been administered in our colleges for over three hundred years, the most significant developments have evolved since World War II. Until then, responsibility for administering aid was fragmented throughout an institution. However, almost overnight, financial aid administration became big business, forcing the centralization of administration.

Through the utilization of student financial aid programs, the federal government has been able to assist the individual whether he attends a private or public institution; something other forms of educational aid have not been able to do.

The GI Bill was one of the first governmental programs to help the individual get vocational and educational training. Current administrative duties of a college financial aid officer in relationship to the GI Bill are merely verification of attendance, if this function is not handled by the office of the registrar.

The National Defense Student Loan Program authorized under the National Defense Education Act of 1958 did a great deal to prepare institutions of higher education for the new partnership between American higher education and the federal government. With the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 came the College Work-Study Program. This began a whole new trend in financial aid offering needy students an alternative to borrowing funds. Wages provide financial aid through work performed by the student. This has had great implications for financial aid officers, necessitating the coordination of student work-study programs with all the work station development, screening, placement supervision and record keeping.

The most recent act of great consequence to student financial aid came in the form of the Higher Education Act of 1965, which includes provision for the Educational Opportunity Grant Program. This third program, along with the College Work-Study Program and the National Defense Student Loan Program, made available complementary programs for the country's neediest students. Even though financial aid officers individually were practicing the "packaging approach, here was the first recognition of this approach through federal legislation. It should be pointed out that the Higher Education Act also contains the Insured Student Loan Program, which especially aids students from families of middle income who would not qualify for assistance through the previously mentioned federal programs. Also enacted in 1965 was the National Vocational Student Loan Insurance Act, lending assistance to students attending vocational schools.

Presently, the 90th Congress has before it H. R. 15067, which is the amended version of the Higher Education Act of 1965. This bill was sent to committee on February 5, 1968 and at the writing of this paper was in the hearing stage. It is mentioned here because of its importance in the future of the government's efforts in assisting students financially. Title IV of the 1965 version is now called "Student Assistance", but if the amended bill is enacted, it will be entitled "Educational Opportunity Act of 1968". The new act calls for consolidation of the Educational Opportunities Grant, the National Defense Student Loan, and the Work-Study Programs into one piece of legislation. It will provide for a one-year extension of the programs and will establish a single advisory agency on student aid. This may mean that a more coordinated program of student aid will come out of Washington; coordinated in the sense that a clearer understanding of the programs should result, qualifying procedures should be more closely matched, and the accounting function, hopefully, would be better synchronized. The newly amended section would also help to clarify the Student Loan Insurance Program, give Federal Saving and Loan associations authorization to invest in loans for vocational education, and merge the National Vocational Student Loan Insurance Act of 1965 with the low-interest insured loan program of the Higher Education Act of 1965. Probably the most significant part of the amended bill is a new section covering special services for disadvantages students. This authorizes institutions to receive grants for planning, developing, or carrying out projects or programs of remedial and other special services for students with academic potential. These include counseling, tutoring, special summer programs, career guidance, and placement. This program, along with the rest of the Educational Opportunity Act of 1968, could have important implications for student personnel services in the years ahead.

Philosophy of Aid Administration

The literature on financial aid appears to reflect two major viewpoints. The first is the "administrative view"which holds that the overriding purpose of financial aid is to meet institutional objectives. The second is the "personnel view", which holds that the central purpose of financial aid is to meet the needs of the recipients of the aid.

In a critique of practice in the administration of financial aid, Gross (1966) indicates that though many student personnel workers are either administratively responsible for financial aid or find their work closely related to its administration, they have not faced the question of whether financial aid administration can be considered personnel work. Even though theoretical assumptions place financial aid within the personnel fold (Arbuckle, 1953), a personnel-view does not appear to prevail in practice according to Gross. Wrenn (1951) also perceived this inconsistency when he commented, "A 'student personnel' point of view has seldom invaded a financial aid program..." Gross, one of the most current writers, sees no evidence that this climate has changed substantially in the last few years.

Realizing the existing inconsistencies between the theoretical and the actual, we can view both the "administrative view" and the "personnel view" further. The "administrative view" relates the purpose of financial aid to the best interest of the institution awarding the aid. Although the recipient profits from the reduction of college costs, this is usually secondary to the benefit derived by the school. Much has been written (Gross, 1966; Moon, 1963; Morse, 1957; Rudolph, 1962, and West, 1963) on the use of financial aid by colleges to attract students to fill curricula and dormitory beds, to change the character of a student body geographically, socio-economically, and intellectually; by governments to support private institutions; and by business, industry, and labor, to improve their public images and to provide fringe benefits to employees and members.

Also to be discussed under the "administrative view" are the political ties between the school and noncollegiate organizations. An ever-increasing number of noncollegiate organizations are becoming involved in undergraduate financial aid on a large scale. These organizations, not always understanding the purpose of higher education, often give a disproportionate amount of aid to certain select institutions. Some sponsors wish to assist students of particular racial, religious, or ethnic derivation, while others seek a commitment of service following graduation.

Student personnel work mirrors the concern for the individual in our society. The "personnel view" relates financial aid to the best interests of the student. Financial need is a personal problem and should be viewed as such. Wrenn (1951) suggests that "...financial aid should contribute to the student's development as well as his pocketbook." The student's need should be based on the known cost of attending the institution. Research should ascertain the true cost involved in attending the institution, and great care should be taken to see that the student receives the kind of aid best suited to the fostering of his growth. Committees should be established to determine policy, with administration, faculty and students all represented. Both

Arbuckle (1953) and Mueller (1961) write about this concern for representation of the three involved parties to further emphasize the "personnel view". Even though research is basically lacking in the support of the "personnel view", recent directions taken by the colleges, associations of institutions, and government, give hope that this approach is increasing it its usage on campuses today. Specific evidence of this is seen in the creation of the Commission on Financial Aid by the American College Personnel Association, the creation of regional associations (e.g., Midwest Association of Financial Aid Administrators) and most recently, the support of training programs specially designed for financial aid administrators.

The statement entitled "College Financial Aid Principles", adopted in 1961 by participants in the College Scholarship Service not only sets guidelines for these institutions, but in large measure describes the operation of their programs. While this list of principles does not presume to be exhaustive or entirely appropriate to all colleges, it does express a general financial aid philosophy to which a large number of institutions subscribe. Basic to this philosophy if the belief that the educational opportunities of able students should not be controlled by their financial resources. The principles are:

> 1. The primary purpose of a college's financial aid program should be to provide financial aid assistance to students, who, without such aid, would be unable to attend the college.

2. Financial assistance consists of scholarships, loans, and employment, which may be offered to students singly or in various combinations.

3. The family of a student is expected to make a maximum effort to assist the student with college expenses. Financial assistance from colleges and other sources should be viewed only as supplementary to the efforts of the family.

4. In selecting students with need to receive financial assistance, the college should place primary emphasis upon academic achievement, character, and future promise.

5. The total amount of financial assistance offered a student by a college and by other sources should not exceed the amount he needs.

6. In determining the extent of a student's financial need, the college should take into account the financial support which may be expected from the income, assets, and other resources of the parents and the student.

7. In estimating the amount that a student's family can provide for college expenses, the college should consider the factors that affect a family's financial strength: current income, assets, number of dependents, other educational expenses, debts, and retirement needs. In addition, it should consider such special problems as those confronting widows, and families in which both parents work.

8. A student who needs financial aid should provide a reasonable part of the total amount required to meet college expenses by accepting employment, a loan, or both. Acceptance of a loan, however, should not be considered by the college as a prerequisite to the award of a scholarship or job.

9. Because the amount of financial assistance awarded usually reflects the financial situation of the student's family, a public announcement of the amount by the college is undesirable.

10. Consultation between colleges on the kind and amount of financial assistance to be offered a mutual candidate should be encouraged, since this assures relatively equal aid offers to the student, making it possible for him to choose a college on educational rather than financial grounds. This benefits both the student and the college.

> 11. The college should clearly state the total yearly cost of attendance and should outline for each student seeking assistance an estimate of his financial need.
>
> 12. The college should review its financial assistance awards annually and adjust them if necessary, in type and amount, to reflect changes in the financial needs of students and the cost of attending the institution, as well as to carry out the college's clearly stated policies on upper-class renewals.
>
> 13. The college itself should make every effort, and should cooperate with schools and other colleges to encourage college attendance by all able students.
>
> 14. The college should strive, through its publications and other communications, to provide schools, parents, and students with factual information about its aid opportunities, programs, and practices.

Need Analysis

Within the total scope of higher education, one of the largest and most significant financial aids has been the creation of the junior college. Part of the philosophical bases of the junior college is centered on the financial assistance it brings to the student in the nature of (1) an institution within commuting distance of the home, and (2) lower educational cost in tuition than otherwise experienced at four-year institutions of higher education. Although these do not hold true for all junior colleges, few would question the fact that placement of the junior college in the local community has increased the potential for more students to get more education. When students are surveyed, as reported by D'Amico and Prahl (1959) the reason most often given for attending the junior college rather than the four-year institution was lack of financial resources.

To believe that the creation of the institution is the end of the financial obligation of the institution is erroneous. This has been a common fallacy that many junior colleges have labored under for some time. According to Murphy (1967), the junior college student, often living at home, has been considered capable of meeting the comparatively low financial demands of his education with little difficulty. This unrealistic need analysis has handicapped the junior college student and has deprived him of a fair share of the total aid made available to students in all institutions of higher learning.

The total cost of attending college is not always visible on the surface. The financial aid officer should study the situation on his own campus, including factors such as: the cost incurred by students commuting from various areas of the school district; the amount of money the student is expected to contribute to the home to help with the family living expenses, and costs of books and supplies for certain curricular programs the student may choose to pursue. Some students have found that it is not always cheaper to live at home, particularly if commuting is involved.

Many questions must be answered by those working in the commuter campus setting in order to be accurate in estimating the cost of education to the student, and in order to substantiate junior college demands for a more equitable share of the aid funds.

The financial need of the student is the difference between what the student and his parents can contribute toward the costs of education and the actual costs. The contribution expected from the students and the parents should be estimated by consideration of several factors. Of prime importance is the income level of the parent, together with their savings and other accumulated assets. Consideration must be given to the size of the family and the amount of support given to each member, especially if other members are attending college. Expenses and debts need to be scrutinized and the summer earnings and savings of the student evaluated. A more detailed look at the content of need analysis can be gained by referring to the _Manual for Financial Aid Officers_ developed by the College Scholarship Service of the College Entrance Examination Board, or the American College Testing Service's manual, _Handbook for Financial Aid Officers_.

Many colleges participate in one of the two existing commercial need analysis programs, (C.S.S. and A.C.T.); however, some prefer to do their own. The junior college administrator, deciding between need analysis done commercially or by the college's own aid officer must consider the cost involved to the student. Although the cost of commercial need analysis may only be ten dollars, this fee might deter needy prospective students from further inquiry. Along with this consideration, the administrator will be aware of the current emphasis on higher education for the disadvantaged.

Regardless of the method used to determine need, the procedures need to be standardized and based upon actual costs of education to the student. Without consistency, equable service cannot be offered to all.

Student Aid Program

Junior college students could profit from a more comprehensive program if financial aid than is now offered. According to Murphy (1967), more and more of our financially needy students are turning to outside employment in an effort to meet expenses. This practice in itself would not be exceedingly harmful were it not for the fact that the student may be forced to assume a workload of greater than healthful proportion which may tend to reduce his academic success. Considering the importance placed upon grades for transfer or for employment, this could hinder many.

The junior college aid officer can assist the student in meeting his financial need through gifts (scholarships or grants), part time employment, and loans.

The number and kind of scholarships vary from institution to institution as do the methods of awarding these gifts. Some may be granted by the institution while many others are awarded by outside organizations. State scholarship programs are rapidly increasing, assisting capable students to attend state supported institutions of higher education. Often the financial aid officer can gain the support of local organizations to contribute funds for a scholarship program. These are particularly beneficial when administered by the college with the funds passing through the college treasury. This is important because with existing federal student aid programs, local matching funds must be used in order to qualify a grant to the individual student. The Educational Opportunity Grants program provides for federal funds to be used in awarding grants ($200 to $800 a year) to students of exceptional need (those who would not otherwise be able to attend college). To be eligible, a student must be enrolled full time, have a total family income of less than $7,000 per year, and show satisfactory progress in his course of study.

Part time employment is a second type of aid available to the student. Medsker (1965) reports that more than half of all junior college students work part time while attending school and about one-fourth work at least 20 hours per week. The aid officer must be able to assist students making decisions regarding the amount of employment that would allow the student to perform at a level equal to his abilities.

Many students are employed in positions they themselves have located, while others need the assistance of the school. Most institutions participate in the federally supported work-study programs and make a large number of employment opportunities available on campus. Under the work-study program the government contributes eighty percent of the wages paid to the qualified student and the employer pays the remaining twenty percent. Students are allowed to work up to fifteen hours per week. Approved employment is available in nonprofit organizations.

The third type of aid is the loan. Generally speaking, there are three types of loans available to students. First, the institution may have a loan fund which they operate with institutional funds. Normally these loan programs are for emergency purposes involving short-term loans of thirty to ninety days. Secondly, in the area of long term loans, there are two federally sponsored programs. The National Defense Education Act Loan Fund was established by the federal government to provide long term loans at low interest rates to students enrolled half time or more. The federal government puts up nine-tenths of the monies and the college one-tenth. Applicants must be in good academic standing and working toward a degree. No interest accrues during the time of enrollment. Repayment may be made over a ten-year period beginning nine months after the borrower ceases to be enrolled half time or more. Cancellation of a portion of the loan is made to borrowers who teach full time in public or private elementary or secondary schools, or in colleges or universities. Also applicable to the junior college student is the Nurses Training Act Loan Fund which, much like the NDEA Fund, allows cancellation of a portion of the loan for full time employment as a professional nurse.

The third type of loan is the State Guaranteed Bank Loan. The government insures student loans through the lending institutions with the United Student Aid Funds acting as the administrative body. The student solicits the loan directly from the bank and the college only certifies attendance. This, unlike the NDEA loan program, places no restrictions on the family income level of the borrower.

Some combinations of these different forms of help are frequently referred to as aid "packages". Moon (1966) feels students with little need should receive loans. Those with slightly larger need, loans and jobs. Only when the need for assistance becomes sizable should a scholarship or grant be added to these two aid forms. Each aid officer in each institution, operating from his own philosophical base in the issuing of aid, must strive for consistency within his own school, as well as with other institutions of higher learning.

Even though the sources are available, many junior colleges do not offer a quality service. Raines and McDaniel (1966) in commenting on existing practices in junior colleges wrote, "Financial assisting in most colleges took the direction of helping students find part-time employment rather than in giving either loans or direct grants. Each college, however, has secured some funds and had established some procedures for selective financial aid to needy students. Active efforts at money raising for this purpose were rare." Junior colleges have been slow in submitting applications for federal funds and in providing a total aid program. This lack of experience in aid administration needs to be curtailed by staffing the service with trained persons.

Legal Considerations

Financial aid officers deal with contract agreements and promissory notes when lending money to students. The question arises as to whether the school can legally engage a minor, and hold him responsible for the contract or promissory note.

Generally, the legal rule is that a minor may repudiate his contract and financial obligations except those incurred for food, clothing, and other goods and services deemed necessary for his survival and appropriate to his station in life. (Blackwell, 1967) More and more public opinion is placing higher education in the area of necessity and the courts, contrary to earlier decisions, are beginning to declare it in the area of necessity also.

With millions of dollars being loaned to minors each year under the National Defense Student Loan Program, many states have questioned whether the notes executed with minors are valid. In 1959, Illinois enacted a statute saying in effect (Blackwell, 1967) that any student accepted for admission to an institution of higher education would be held responsible for any promissory notes entered into for educational assistance. Similarly, the New Mexico legislature in 1967 adopted a statute which will serve as a preliminary draft of an act to be presented to the Commissioners on Uniform State Laws. It reads, in part, as follows:

> "Any written promissory note, contract, or other obligation entered into or executed by a minor 16 years of age or over, evidencing loans or other aid and assistance received by him from any person for the purpose of furthering his education at an institution of higher learning, is enforceable against the minor with the same effect as if he were, at the time of its execution, 21 years of age, provided that the person making the loan shall have in his records prior to making the loan a certification from the institution of higher learning that the minor is regularly enrolled in the institution of higher learning or has been accepted for regular enrollment in the institution of higher learning."

Financial aid officers should be aware of their state's statutes relating to promissory notes to minors, because delinquent accounts can seriously impair a loan program and may even bring the tax-payer to the door. One way to avoid this legal question altogether is to require a note to be countersigned by one or more responsible adults. Most institutions do not follow this procedure routinely, because it is not a requirement for NDEA loans.

The College Placement Service

Although some (Bishop, 1966) trace the beginnings of placement all the way back to the beginnings of higher education in the United States, arguing that education for the ministry constituted acceptance of responsibility for the transition of students into their post collegiate world, others would point to the organization of Eastern College Personnel Officers, on October 15, 1926, as a more meaningful date. However, a national study of 640 placement offices discloses that only seven percent of that number were in operation prior to 1920, and only fifty percent prior to 1950 (Calvert and Menke, 1967). This would indicate that despite the job-seeking problems of college students during the depression years of the 1930's, and the acute personnel needs of employers during World War II, the most rapid growth in placement services and their general acceptance as a responsibility of the colleges, have taken place since 1950.

Between 1947 and 1951, seven new regional placement associations were formed, providing bases for research and exchange of information which gave great impetus to the movement. In 1956, the incorporation of the College Placement Council brought a common focus to the activities of the regional groups, and has since resulted in increased research and publication, as well as the current use and [illegible]y of computerized operations.

Placement in the Junior College

With its flexible curriculum and sensitivity to the needs of its community, the comprehensive junior college has the exceptional capability of being able to shape its program to equip its students for local employment, as well as to help employed people keep up with technological change. It is particularly tuned to the personnel needs of local business and industry, as well as to the educational needs of its students. Despite the presence of vigorous transfer programs, and remedial and other special activities, there is an occupational orientation on the junior college campus matched in few other institutions. When we consider, too, that the immediate promise of job placement is necessary to the healthy growth of vocational-technical programs, it becomes clear that an effective placement service is vitally necessary to the junior college. What, then, is the status of placement at these institutions?

Medsker (1960), reporting on 76 junior colleges, found placement included among personnel services in more than ninety percent of the colleges studied. Seventy percent of the colleges with more than 1,000 enrollment had specialized officers designated for the office. Ayers, Tripp, and Russell (1966), in an official Health, Education, and Welfare Bulletin, found placement reported as not performed by 52 of 213 junior colleges; only fifteen percent of the colleges reported having a director of placement. Where there were less than 2,500 student, faculty members were active participants in placement activities; and job placement and nonacademic records responsibilities appeared to be shared frequently with the director of placement and the registrar, respectively.

Eckberg (1967) reports on a particulary pertinent study covering 136 junior and community colleges. Most of these had enrollments between 1,000 and 3,000; the great majority were public institutions. Ninety-one public and nine private colleges (73.5%) reported having ongoing, full time placement services; the remainder reported limited placement services (31 public and 5 private colleges). The majority of those reporting limited service had enrollments between 1,000 and 3,000. Among the 100 colleges with full time placement, the following facts were reported:

> Ninety percent of the facilities are being supported, staffed, and financed with institutional funds.
>
> Eighty-three percent operate a centralized facility, under a single administrator.
>
> Fifty-one percent list the dean of students as the person to whom the chief placement official reports.
>
> Only fifty-three percent of placement administrators spend more than half their time on placement.
>
> Less than half of the 100 colleges provide career guidance and vocational planning assistance. Twenty-eight percent consider these services of minor importance. Similarly, little placement research or graduate follow-up is being accomplished.

Raines and McDaniel (in McConnel, 1965) reinforce this rather dismal picture, as follows:

> "Graduate placement was a strongly implemented function in a few colleges, and an identified student personnel concern in most of the colleges. In practice the job placement service gave attention to part time employment for active students as well as full time job placement for graduates. Only a few colleges had fully staffed placement offices. Most of them linked this function to college officers with other duties. A few colleges effected this service by an organized relationship with public employment services."

Granted that the comprehensive junior college is still and new and developing institution, it might be reasonable to expect that such a central service function would receive more emphasis. That this emphasis will be forthcoming is the belief (Eckberg, 1967) of the large majority of junior college presidents, who feel that pressure for improved placement service will come from outside the campus.

Placement Procedures and Services

While excellent guidelines for college and university placement, and placement in the junior college are available in Teal and Herrick (1962) and Mohs (1962) respectively, methods of operation vary on individual campuses. At some colleges, the placement function may be limited to receiving phone calls from prospective employers and pinning notices to a bulletin board, or to the efforts of individual instructors who become aware of openings in their special fields (Blocker, Plummer and Richardson, 1965). On the other hand, the major university may consider it necessary to provide either several placement units, one in each of its schools, or, as Mueller (1961) suggests, "a professional organization all its own, with the familiar pattern of internal specialists for industry, government, education, commerce, science, and the arts, for men and women, for graduate and undergraduate, etc., together with an elaborate and carefully tended web of cummunication with the outside world.

Placement services will vary, too, from junior college to junior college. Collins (1967), in his summary of the Carnegie Report on junior college student personnel programs, suggests three basic functions for the placement officer: locating appropriate employment for qualified individuals terminating their college training; providing placement information to prospective employers; and engaging in followup studies as a means to guiding curricular development.

Mohs (1962), an experienced Dean of Placement at Pasadena City College, draws on the resources of a dozen junior college administrators, mainly from the placement area, in assembling his much more extensive view of the junior college placement service:

> "College placement may be defined as a service which assists its student clients in relating their personal qualities, education, and experience to occupational requirements, assists them in their search for employment, and cooperates with employers in the successful induction of the student into part-time and career positions. It also assists employers by screening and referring qualified applicants for jobs and acts as liaison agent in acquainting college personnel with the needs of business and industry in curriculum development."

Note that this definition assumes responsibility to student, employer, and college, as well as making reference to activity in the areas of counseling, training, evaluation, and followup. It is evident that Mohs views placement as an integral part of the educational (academic as well as personnel) program of the college.

In most of the pertinent literature, there appears to be agreement that the good (and successful) placement office is student-centered, emphasizing counseling and assistance to the student, and making students aware of the facilities and resources available to them. At a minimum, this office would provide the following services:

1. Solicitation of employment opportunities, and keeping employers informed concerning the program of the college.

2. Recruiting and registering student applicants, and assembling pertinent records and recommendations to be used with prospective employers.

3. Providing counseling to help applicants with their career decisions, as well as other questions that may arise.

4. Maintaining a library of reading materials on employing organizations (and career information, if this is not maintained in the counseling center).

5. Making the needs and operations of employers known to students, alumni, and faculty.

6. Scheduling applicant-recruiter interviews.

7. Maintaining records of applicants, referrals, and placements.

8. Assessing the effectiveness of the college program in meeting community needs.

9. Planning, executing, and disseminating follow-up studies, particularly those relating to working students and full-time placements.

In the foregoing, two assumptions are made which need clarification. First, it is assumed that the college in question has included placement in its budget, at least to the extent of providing appropriate office space, the services of one professional staff member, and auxiliary personnel. There are some who feel that in one way or another the State Employment Services should carry the main referral burden. Most, however, according to Mohs (1962), feel that colleges should organize and operate their own placement services staffed with college personnel, while maintaining amicable relations with the state service and referring appropriate cases to them.

The second assumption is that part time work opportunities and work-study programs are being administered through a financial aids service, as part of the financial aids "package" programs. Where one administrator is responsible for both functions, no problem exists; otherwise, there are persuasive reasons which can be advanced for placing these programs within the purview of either one of the offices.

Organizing for Effective Placement

Perhaps the soundest organizational procedure of all is to include the placement service in the original program of a new college, when, according to Mohs (1962), it can be considered a part of guidance, provision for space requirements can be included in building plans, and new personnel can be hired--all with very few of the problems that can accompany the attempt to include the service at a later date.

Whatever the date of organization, it is imperative that the need for placement services be recognized by administration and faculty, students and parents, and employers, for these are the ones whose understanding, good will, and participation will be necessary to the successful operation. At this point, some suggest the formation of a committee comprised of top people from the publics represented above, whose sole function would be to discuss the advisability of placement organization and present recommendations to the college president. If organization for placement is approved, another committee, composed of college personnel, should be appointed to make recommendations concerning the basic outlines, policy, personnel, and facilities of the service. In short, effective communication is the lifeline of the placement operation, and it must start before the service has been organized or even planned.

Because of space limitations, and because such excellent and complete treatments (even including sample printed forms, committee reports, followup studies, etc) are readily available in Teal and Herrick (1962) and in Mohs (1962), no extensive description of placement operations will be attempted here. Following, however, in abbreviated form, is an operational model for the placement service which has been abstracted from Placement Guides, A Self-Evaluation Checklist for Placement Offices, The College Placement Council, Incorporated, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania.

I SERVICE TO STUDENTS

A. Career Placement

Objective:

To assist the student or alumnus in achieving his career objectives by

- a. Making known to him the full range of employment opportunity and
- b. Assisting him to present himself effectively as a candidate

B. Career Orientation and Development

Objectives:

1. To make the student aware of the many and varied career opportunities that exist in the workday world, including:
    - a. The requirements of these opportunities and
    - b. The changing nature of the occupational world.
2. To motivate the student to a continuous appraisal of his career goals including:
    - a. The adjusting of his choice to his own individual interests, aptitudes, and capabilities and
    - b. A perception of the advantages and disadvantages of his choice as it relates to his personal life.

C. Student Employment, Part time, Temporary, and Vacation. (Possibly administered through Financial Aids)

Objectives:

1. To provide financial assistance for students and
2. To provide work experience as part of an occupational orientation and career development program.

II RELATIONS WITH EMPLOYERS

Objective:

To provide facilities and professional assistance which will enable the employer to select candidates to meet his employment needs.

III RELATIONS WITH THE UNIVERSITY (COLLEGE) COMMUNITY

Objectives:

1. To achieve a partnership which
   a. Permits administration and faculty to make their fullest contribution to good placement and, at the same time,
   b. Minimizes their involvement in the routine mechanics of placement and minimizes interference with teaching and research, as well as other campus services and activities.
2. To ensure that administration and faculty take a real interest in and give active support to an effective placement program for their students and alumni.

IV ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

Objective:

To organize the placement office so that it can efficiently carry out its student service programs and effectively maintain good relations with employers and the university (college) community.

Administration:

Personnel:

Facilities:

Professional Activity:

Excellent suggestions for program and activities designed to achieve the listed objectives can be found in the original reference (see above).

There are a number of important organizational considerations surrounding the birth of a new placement service. Can it be located in the mainstream of campus activity? Can sufficient space be made available, including private conference areas? Can the service have its own telephone trunks--not shared with counseling service or other offices?

Are the quarters expandable, to provide for growth?

Who shall be served by the office--alumni? part-time students? graduates? foreign students?

Will a fee be charged for the service? Although educators generally support the idea that placement is an integral part of education, and should be supported through institutional funds, there will be some who feel that placement should pay its own way.

What constitutes adequate staff? adequate budget?

At what point, if ever, should data processing be utilized?

The following sources are strongly recommended for those concerned with organization or operation of placement services:
Service Through Placement by Milton C. Mohs (1962), and The Fundamentals of College Placement, Everett A. Teal and Robert F. Herrick (Eds.) (1962). Also highly recommended as valuable sources are Journal of College Placement published by College Placement Council, Inc., Vocational Guidance Quarterly, published by National Vocational Guidance Association, and Career Counseling and Placement in Higher Education, An Annotated Bibliography, a publication of the Eastern College Placement Association.

The Ethics of Placement

Early in the history of college placement the need was recognized for a set of standards of conduct for employers, placement officers, and student applicants. These standards, it was felt, were necessary to the elimination and prevention of questionable practices on the part of all participants. A partial listing of some of the problems which led to the necessity for setting standards may be illuminating:

1. The granting of special favors to students as an enticement to accept positions, including the offering of travel allowances for interviews which were far in excess of the distance travelled.
2. Mass invitations from placement offices to recruit on campuses lacking a proportionate graduate product in terms of quality or quantity.
3. The offering of material favors to a placement officer (with the expectation of favored treatment).
4. Making improper use of salary information obtained from employers by the placement officer.
5. The practice by recruiters of offering the same job in sequence to candidates at widely separated locations.

These are just a few of the considerations involved.

Most important is the fact that the primary function of placement pertains to youth, with whom the very highest level of relationships should be developed and maintained.

Sparked by the interest of various Regional Placement Associations, industrial representatives and college placement officers worked out a joint statement in 1957. This was carefully reviewed and revised, and was accepted and published in 1959 with the title, Principles and Practices of College Recruiting. In addition to a set of general principles, the responsibilities of employer, college and student are carefully spelled out. The net desired effect is to make a partnership of the three parties concerned, so that each may be aware of his rightful place in employment negotiations.

Summary

College Financial Aid and Placement Services assist the student in obtaining his education and in locating the setting to utilize that education. Both services, though practiced on the campus for over fifty years, can be said to have come of age in the 1950's. Financial aid found its impetus through federal legislation, while Placement marks its rise to prominence with the adoption of a code of ethics, and the formation of a national professional association, the College Placement Council.

These services, although factors at many junior colleges, have not yet received the emphasis that might be expected at such institutions. The type and quality of the services varies from campus to campus. There is, however, agreement in the literature regarding the importance of counseling and assistance to the student, and other basic functions to be performed. The rationale is clear for the combining of these services in most junior colleges and an organizational framework is suggested.

Increased professional training of student personnel workers and the wide acceptance and demands for the services will change the much talked about but little practiced phase of personnel work into an integral part of the student personnel programs in the junior colleges of America.

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RESEARCH AND EVALUATION IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

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and

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The literature of higher education, in general, and of the junior college, in particular, is replete with description of the mounting burdens, complexities, and problems involved in the education of today's college age youth. As the functions of the junior college expand to serve greater numbers of students in a greater variety of ways, the managerial functions have likewise expanded to the point where administration has become a specialized type of professional service (Brumbaugh, 1960). In reviewing the literature regarding institutional research, one point above all others was unanimously stressed; the basic purpose of institutional research is to provide the bases for decision making (Browning, 1961; Koch & LaVire, 1967; Lins, 1962; Marsee, 1965; Thompson, 1962). It is through institutional research that problems facing institutions of higher education are brought to light and the bases for decisions provided (Lins, 1962). Brumbaugh (1960) and Marsee (1965) agree on the importance of institutional research; Brumbaugh states it very succinctly:

> The key to effective administration is the ability of the president and those who work with him to ask the right questions and then find the right answers. But the right answers to the right questions, whether they are specific in relation to a given institution or whether they are more comprehensive, must take into account all the relevant, factual data--the kind of data that only institutional research can provide. (Brumbaugh, 1960)

Stickler (1961) stresses that one should not think that institutional research is desirable only in senior institutions--especially in big universities-- in commenting, "Size has little or nothing to do with institutional research." He also states that if he were a junior college administrator, he would want on hand "as working tools" the results of institutional research. Besides being of aid to college administrators, institutional research can be, and should be, of benefit to the board or trustees--in formulating policy and in evaluating the philosophy of the institution on a continuous basis (Browning, 1961; Marsee, 1965; Thompson, 1962).

In describing both the purposes and effects of institutional research, Thompson (1962) states that once the administrators have the benefit of research, their decisions will be less limited by their own experiences and knowledge. They will be able to examine proposed changes with a better picture of what the consequences will be. "Their concept of possible consequences will be derived from careful technical studies, the application of scientific knowledge by competent professional staff (Thompson, 1962)." Thus, decisions will be based more on research of operations rather than by influential administrators and faculty committees (Russel, 1960; Thompson, (1962). However, Thompson (1962) clearly states that faculty committees and administrators will be no less necessary because the institutional research makes decisions for them; on the contrary, institutional research will raise more questions, make the faculty more aware of evolving changes, and point out new courses of action which might not have been considered.

Institutional research, then, will not only permit change but it will facilitate change (Thompson, 1962). It will be necessary if the institution is to avoid the pitfall of complacency. It must be done in relationship to the goals of the college--with full realization that the goals and the philosophies might need scrutiny (Marsee, 1965). Research or evaluation, then, is both a means and an end.

In discussing the need for experimental junior colleges, Johnson (1965) comments that if the junior college is to meet the responsibilities which are thrust upon it, it must be in the forefront in adapting to change. Johnson quotes Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., Executive Director of the American Association of Junior Colleges, as saying:

> It is my impression that community colleges, in general, have tended to stay well within the boundaries of current educational practice and procedure. Frequently described as flexible, dynamic, new and responsive, the junior college does not often actually fit that description. (Johnson, 1965)

It seems that only through institutional research can the junior college become what is expected of it and what it tends to expect from itself. As specifically stated by Merson (1966):

> We are going to try to demonstrate that universal post-high school education is possible, practical, and profitable. All that stands in the way of accomplishing this goal is finding solutions to a few hundred complex problems of human behavior! . . .Idealistic? Yes. Realistic? Yes. Can we achieve such accomplishments? The answer will probably be determined by the effectiveness of our applied research effort.

In discussing the necessity for research, Marsee (1965) points out that since trustees employ professional leadership, they should expect to obtain professional service--including recommendations based on institutional research. It is quite obvious that a needed skill of administrators will be that of selecting personnel for research and planning.

What is Institutional Research?

The importance and necessity of institutional research has been established. However, what it is and its purposes in the junior college (as related to student personnel services) must be clarified. The junior college does not have a reputation as being research oriented: ". . .The two-year college has made something of a fetish of not being research oriented (Blocker, Plummer, & Richardson, 1965)." The emphasis on non-research in the junior college is apparently more on pure research than on applied or action research. While most references to institutional research referred to applied research, pure research also seems to be important (Brumbaugh, 1960). Applied research consists of studies and investigations of immediate problems and issues basic to long-range planning; pure research consists of those studies which may ultimately have implications for institutional operations (Brumbaugh, 1960).

Lins (1966) stresses the point that research is original investigation; it is not conducted in a crisis situation to provide ex post facto verification of the sagacity of a prior decision. Every effort should be made to assure the quality of research; then the researcher should do all he can to encourage the administrator to use the research properly.

Institutional research should be directed toward important problems of the institution. The implication is that the routine compilation of readily available data is not really research (Lins, 1966; Russell, 1960). The first time data are organized to solve a problem, it is research; the mere repetition of a study annually ceases to be research. However, repetition of studies to improve techniques or determine trends is legitimate research (Russell, 1960).

An example of research conducted for the purpose of providing a basis for a decision was given by Thomson (1962). It involved an analysis of drop-outs. By reviewing what other institutions had done, plus their own research, the investigators were able to recommend to the committee new policies and procedures which would reduce the attrition rate. By itself, the committee could have only brought together the opinions of it's members on the problem.

There appears to be general agreement that research, evaluation, and follow-up studies should be an intrinsic part of the student personnel services in the junior college (Dobbin & Turnbull, 1965; Hoyt, 1965; O'Connor, 1965; and Raines, 1965). Higgins & Thurston (1966) point out that "research must become a point of view and a way of life." Raines (1965), however, states in the "Carnegie Report" that action and expediency have taken precedence over reflection on goals as well as systematic evaluation of functions: ". . .the need for effective implementation of coordinative, evaluative, and up-grading functions is critical!" He comments that those functions are not adequately provided in at least nine out of ten junior colleges.

Thornton (1966) states that the availability of a large amount of information on students (in the student personnel office) should encourage and facilitate institutional research. Many questions are asked about student characteristics; many of the answers are in the student personnel files. Text book writers (particularly college professors) are often accused of existing in "ivory towers", out of touch with reality; however, in discussing the necessity of student personnel workers becoming involved in research, they are supported by the pragmatists--the junior college presidents. Dr. Joseph P. Cosand (President of the St.Louis-St. Louis County, Missouri, Junior College District) sent the following memorandum to his staff in the spring of 1967:

> If we are to do our job, we certainly must know more about our students. It is essential for our student personnel staffs on all three campuses to do research insofar as is practicable, in the areas of students' characteristics, so that our entire staff can have up to date profiles of our student populations.. . .Our student personnel staffs have done an excellent job, but there is so much more, as they well realize, that needs to be done.

There seems to be no question that the student personnel services staff should engage in research and evaluation. As Hoyt (1965) comments, it will "of necessity contribute to our broad understandings and provide intellectual supports for our programs and services."

A Climate for Research

If institutional research is so vital, it would logically seem that there would be little difficulty in establishing it as an integral part of the student personnel program in the junior colleges. Previously cited research (Raines, 1965), however, indicated that only one out of ten student personnel programs had included research as a function. Before any significant research program can become functional, there must be a climate including administrative support, adequate facilities, and personnel trained to do research (Lins, 1966).

Brumbaugh (1960) notes that there are psychological and sociological factors--climate--which should be accounted for in planning, launching, and conducting institutional research. One factor is the attitude toward research which is largely dependent upon the rapport that exists among the faculty, and between the faculty and administration. The college (as a social organization) may be either a unified group or a wide variety of sub-groups "whose attitudes have a vital effect on their participation in, and acceptance of, institutional research projects (Brumbaugh, 1960)."

It is clear that a proper climate for research must be developed. It must exist at the national, state, and local levels (Raines, 1965). The climate for research at the national level is not under the control of those at the local level. The researcher at the local level is in a much better position, however, by being aware of national sources of funding and of dissemination. The individual researcher (or institution) has more influence in improving the climate for research at the state level. Raines (1965) concluded that only two states--California and Florida--have provided favorable state level climates for research. At the local level, it is important to initiate a favorable research climate with the board of directors (Lins, 1966). The board should expect that research be a basis for much of their own actions and, thus, provide the necessary personnel, facilities, and time for research.

The question arises as to how research activities should be organized and implemented. Some of the various approaches are: (1) faculty research centered in academic departments (including student personnel services), (2) a faculty research committee which coordinates research, (3) unplanned, spasmodic, research activity, and (4) a centralized office of institutional research. The current trend is toward centralization of the research functions, as indicated by Dobbin & Turnbull (1965) and Marsee (1965). The basic advantage is that it is much more efficient and avoids duplication of effort and resources.

Centralization, however, does not mean that only the director is involved in research. On the contrary, the administration and entire faculty (including the student personnel staff) must be involved, especially if the results are to be the basis of institutional action or philosophy. In many institutions with centralized research functions, there is also an institution-wide advisory committee (Brumbaugh, 1960; Stickler, 1961). Marsee (1965) specifically recommends such a committee since research may present a case against a popular cause. The researcher must be prepared for that eventuality; a committee functions to take off some of the pressure. The tendency would be to make research more audacious since it is less subject to institutional pressures. Marsee continues by pointing out that the researcher must not consider it personal if the president or others disregard his findings. He states, "His responsibility is for research and not for decision making." Such an attitude is the only feasible one if research is to be carried out in an open, honest, and scientific manner.

Centralized offices of institutional research are relatively new in the history of higher education (Russell, 1960), although there has been a dramatic upsurge in institutional research activity in recent years. With few exceptions, it is an even newer phenomenon in the junior colleges. Such an exception is Stephens College (Columbia, Missouri) which appointed it's first Director of Institutional Research about forty years ago. "The emphasis on experimentation and institutional research in this college (Stephens) and their impact on the educational program has brought the institution national recognition (Brumbaugh, 1960)."

There is some disagreement as to whom the director of institutional research should report. Stickler (1961) would have the director report to a major institutional officer, preferably the president. He states, "High administrative placement will give the institutional research agency the status it must have to gain access to the multifarious raw data it will need in pursuing its research program." A different concept is presented by Dobbin and Turnbull (1965) who would have the director responsible to either a dean of instruction or student personnel services. The director would do more actual research, if that were the case, than if he were responsible to the president or the business manager. "In the latter case, research very often becomes confused with housekeeping and budget preparation and is never heard from again (Dobbin & Turnbull, 1965)." They summarize their position by commenting that the time has come for many junior colleges to add an institutional research office and not be "self-conscious" about it.

It might be speculated that an office of institutional research reporting to the Dean of Student Personnel Services would be the most efficient in doing research and evaluation on students and on student personnel programs. A centralized office would also be doing research on other things such as curriculum, utilization of facilities, and other activities out-side the realm of personnel services. Thus, with or without a centralized research agency, student personnel workers will be, and should be, faced with a considerable amount of research activity. It would seem that the one place where the demand for action piles up is the place least equipped to take the necessary action--the student personnel office of the junior college. Dobbin and Turnbull (1965) specifically state:

> There may not be a single junior college in which the student personnel office is staffed or equipped or budgeted to do half of the studies that the junior college needs to do in order to know it's students well enough to give them the kind of education that the college is capable of. (Dobbin & Turnbull, 1965)

That may seem like an unjust indictment, but it is probably not too inaccurate. Furthermore, Hoyt (1965) comments:

> One can hardly imagine more negative inducements than those which surround the typical junior college student personnel worker. Day to day service demands leave him with no free time; his institution is frequently too small to justify data processing; and he himself, more often than not, feels either incapable of performing research or uninterested in getting involved in it. Whether these considerable handicaps can be overcome will determine whether or not research will play the key role it deserves in the development not only of student personnel programs but of the total junior college program.

Three imperatives of conducting research--staff, equipment, and budget--have been mentioned (Dobbin & Turnbull, 1965). If these three components were present in sufficient quantity and quality in a specific student personnel department, it could be concluded that the department operated in a favorable research climate. Each of the three components will be discussed relative to the student personnel office and staff.

Staff

Raines (1965) believes that it is improbable that all personnel workers could be research oriented:

> The current level of research skills and research orientation among student personnel practitioners is not favorable. The bulk of these staff members are (by personal make-up) service oriented, and it is probably unrealistic to expect them to develop research skills. At the same time, at least one person with research knowledge and orientation should be employed on each staff.

Note that Raines stated that at least one person should have research knowledge and orientation; he did not say only one. Generally, the only person on the personnel staff with a research degree, or the necessary background, is the dean. The dean is usually so preoccupied with a variety of duties, however, that he would barely have time to actively supervise research, to say nothing of actually conducting projects himself. It, therefore, seems imperative that either (1) Master's degree programs offer more research courses or (2) more individuals should be encouraged to take post-master's work with emphasis on training in research. There must be, however, financial incentives if the institution wishes individuals to seek additional formal education; there must also be opportunities for them to use their new skills and training.

Another possibility would be to hire new staff with the necessary research training, skills, and interests. Considering the rapid expansion of community colleges, however, it is very doubtful that there are enough such individuals to go around.

A different alleviation of the staffing problem is proposed by Fordyce, Sheppard, and Collins (1965) who would implement inservice training programs. They state than no student personnel staff is as well prepared as it is potentially capable of being. To be effective, every college will devise carefully planned programs of inservice training, in various areas, for all it's professional workers. Included should be research training for at least some of the staff.

Hoyt (1965) also suggests having research consultants. Such specialists would work with individuals familiar with the specific problems but who lack the necessary training, skills, and methodology to find the solutions.

In summary, the staffing problems may be reduced by hiring individuals with research skills, by inservice training, and by the utilization of research consultants.

Time and Facilities

Staffing is only part of the problem; the individuals doing the research must be given adequate time and facilities.

Time is related to both staffing and the budget. Enough non-research staff must be available so that the researcher will have sufficient time to devote to his research. Good research demands careful, methodical, and time consuming work. If the research completed is not quality research, the insti- would be, in most cases, better off without it at all. In order to increase efficiency and provide more time for research, it is imperative that electronic data processing equipment be available (Deyo, 1961; Higgins & Thurston, 1966; Hoyt, 1965). Higgins and Thurston note that the ability to speak the language of the computers is essential to the conduct of research; there is no longer enough time to hand process the mass of data available on the students.

In addition to the use of computers, two other possibilities should be mentioned. One is that those doing research should have sufficient clerical help to do much of the routine, time consuming, tasks required in most research undertakings. A second possibility is that of training students in basic statistics and employing them on a part-time basis to assist in the routine tasks.

Hoyt (1965) suggests that since most schools cannot afford data processing equipment--and its major advantages are realized only through efficient utilization--a cooperative plan should be developed by most junior colleges.

A minimum requirement is that every student personnel office have available at least one desk calculator. Not to have one is not only extremely short-sighted but reflects a lack of concern for, or realization or, the important contribution that even simple research can make to more efficient operation of the student personnel program and the college. In addition, the usual office facilities and supplies are also necessary.

Budget

It is obvious that institutional research is not free, if staff, time, and equipment are adequately provided. Stickler (1961), however, states that the cost of institutional research is not high, in terms of its productivity. Important cost variables include the size of the institution, the amount of the research planned, and the degree of sophistication expected.

Many existing programs and projects in the area of student personnel services are in need of research and evaluation. Proposed new programs, projects, and/or techniques are often related to such research and evaluation. New programs would ideally be conducted so that evaluation would be an integral part of the project. That usually indicates that the program or project will take the form of an experiment or a quasi-experimental research design. For example, a new method of group counseling might be initiated with the goal of improving study habits. Such a program would, ideally, be set up as a research project and would be conducted in cooperation with the research director and/or under advisement of a research consultant. Part, if not all, of the expense might be funded through sources outside the institution, such as one of the U. S. Government agencies or one of the major Foundations. (See Appendices A and B a partial list of sources).

Such resources can be helpful in easing the research budget providing the applicant understands the approach of the Federal government in sponsoring research (Lee, 1968). It must be recognized that the government aids higher education due to the effect of higher education on social welfare and the national interest.

Lee (1968) has listed some of the weaknesses of research proposals. First is a lack of understanding of the purpose of the federal program. Second is the problem of the government receiving long lists of things that would be wonderful to have but without a defense as to the need and/or relationship with the institution. Lee further comments:

> The college president has not attempted to discourage inappropriate ideas for funding. Instead of asserting academic leadership, he asks the people in Washington to do that job for him.

This point illustrates another reason for an office of institutional research. A third problem indicated is that the relationship between the proposed budget and the proposed program is not clear: "Sometimes it seems as if the business manager wrote the budget and the program person wrote the program without ever getting together (Lee, 1968)." A final weakness specified is that of incompleteness and/or sloppiness of writing. He points out that research proposals requesting grants should be given the same careful attention as any basic document or report.

He also list several criteria for selecting a proposal for government or foundation funding and concludes:

> The programs can be only as good as the proposals and plans submitted. Together, we may be able to demonstrate to all concerned. . .that the junior colleges have a significant and vital contribution to make for the welfare of this nation. (Lee, 1968)

In summary, it cannot be stressed too much that a proper climate is the pivotal point of success or failure of the student personnel office's efforts to provide adequate research. The advisability of having a centralized office of institutional research has been supported. For most junior colleges, it would also seem advisable to establish such an office in conjunction with the student personnel services since research on the students and student characteristics are of prime importance.

The climate should be favorable at all levels--federal, state, and local--with or without a centralized research office. At the local level, the research climate should proceed from the board, to the president, and then permeate the entire faculty, staff, and student body. Then, and only then, will the junior colleges be the creative, innovative, dynamic leaders that they aspire to be in their communities and in higher education.

Research Types and Needs

A short review of basic types of research is presented to provide a common frame of reference. Hoyt (1965) lists three basic types of research as being especially pertinent to the junior colleges; Descriptive, Experimental, and Correlational. Lins (1966) listed seven types, including those especially adapted to studying complex relationships. The classification by Lins shall be reviewed because it incorporates those also mentioned by Hoyt:

> The historical method uses data obtained through direct or indirect observation. The observations are uncontrolled and the approach is longitudinal.
>
> The normative survey method is analogous to Hoyt's descriptive method. The sources of data are through interviews, questionnaires, check lists, etc. It uses cross-sectional approaches and the observations are usually uncontrolled.

> The _experimental_ method obtains its data through direct observation and measurement; it is cross-sectional in approach and uses controlled observations.
>
> The _causal_-_comparative_ is a method using direct observation and measurement as a data source. It is cross-sectional with uncontrolled observations.
>
> The _correlation_ method uses direct observation and measurement. It is also cross-sectional using chiefly uncontrolled observations.
>
> The _case study_ method utilizes both direct and indirect, chiefly uncontrolled observations and is longitudinal. It is also used in an effort to determine causal relations.
>
> The _genetic_ method uses direct controlled and uncontrolled observations and measurements. Genetic studies are preferably longitudinal but may also be cross-sectional. These studies attempt to determine change in growth and development and to discover characteristic traits and norms at different age levels in an attempt to determine, again, causal relations. (Lins, 1966)

In addition to different types of studies, there are those which are best conducted at different levels; that is, by the national agencies; by state or regional agencies and/or inter-institutional cooperation; and by local institutions.

The variety of research needs in junior colleges is practically limitless. In reviewing the literature, however, one need was emphasized; the need to know more about junior college students--traits, goals, and aspirations--at the local level. The need is great to know about both _individual_ students and _groups_ of students (Dobbin & Turnbull, 1965). O'Connor (1965) has stated that in the past, junior colleges have tended to give greater attention to evaluation of instruction and administration than to appraisal of the student's goal attainment. In a recent survey, Mathies (1967) reported that it was found that items relevant to curriculum and instruction were favored by a ratio of four to one over other areas of research. Sixty-five percent of the sample of educators expressed the need for information concerning students, but fewer than forty percent of the administrators expressed such a need. The indication was that administrators were more interested in matters of administrative policy and procedure; they delegated responsibilities for matters directly relevant to students to other of their staff members. O'Connor (1965) states that the student should be the center of research: "Institutional research will be of little use if it does not take into account the results of the college's efforts toward meeting the aspirations and objectives of the people to be served."

Hoyt (1965) has indicated that student characteristics are determinants of a wide range of philosophical, policy and methodology decisions, and agreed that junior college officials know relatively little about the student. It was agreed, he reported, that more description of academic potentials is relatively unimportant. There is a need, however, to provide a comprehensive profile of the entering students at each junior college. Such a profile should include both intellective and non-intellective variables (Heist, 1960; Roueche, 1967).

Weber (1968) studied five English programs in Michigan junior colleges and made the following recommendation:

> That community colleges actively pursue research on their own students and make the results available to their individual departments so that they, in turn, can do more competent research on their own programs. The writer was dismayed to discover that none of the colleges included in this study had done recent research on their student bodies (or if they had, the results had not been given to the English departments). English departments, in particular, need to know the characteristics of their students in order to plan an overall English program intelligently.

It is obvious that the need to know more about students--their aptitudes, goals, accomplishments, attitudes and values, social backgrounds, etc.--is a real and pressing need. It is true that many studies have been done on junior college students, but too many follow the same pattern--focusing on the success of the junior college transfer student, with success being measured by grades earned at four-year colleges and universities (Roueche, 1967). A previous section has reported on the characteristics of junior college students, but for the purpose of providing information relative to decision making, local research is mandatory! In commenting on the need for local research, Hoyt (1965) has stated that however valuable it is to understand the "big picture", it is likely that individual institutions will be more affected by (and more likely to act upon) local research than upon the broad generalities emerging from comprehensive research reports. He indicates that the well-established diversities in student bodies, faculties, committees, and institutional facilities warn against the application of research generalizations to individual situations, in terms of specific institutions.

Normative data should be developed at the local level to enable the student to make functional decisions more efficiently (Fordyce, et al.,1965), including basic skill diagnosis. The great influx of students from varying backgrounds of educational attainment has made this necessary. The list of areas of needed research is almost endless. Much more must be done in evaluating existing services, especially in the student personnel services area. There is little or no empirical evidence that a student personnel program has any real impact on the student or institutional development (Raines, 1965).

One of the most fertile and potentially useful areas of research is the follow-up study. Many types of follow-up studies are possible and should become an integral part of the research program at every institution. Follow-up studies provide the student with information regarding the success of other students who transfer or enter the labor market. Such studies provide the instructor with first-hand evidence of the effectiveness of his teaching and of his academic standards. The counselor is given the factual information on which to base his counseling regarding career choices, course selections, sources of continued education, etc. Follow-ups provide the college with facts upon which to base admission policies, to develop and organize courses, and to improve articulation with students, parents, other institutions, and business or industry. Follow-ups also benefit the community by identifying gaps in educational services, by creating confidence in the college, by increasing the productivity of college trained recruits, and by providing a means of insuring effective occupational up-grading (O'Banion, 1967). An excellent source regarding such research is the booklet, Follow-up Studies in Junior Colleges; A Tool for Institutional Improvement, by O'Connor (1965).

Another area of comparatively recent research concern is the measurement of college environments and student sub-cultures (Hoyt, 1965; Medsker, 1965). Little has been done in this area at the junior college level. The development of measurement devices suitable for the junior college is needed for this type of research, however (Hoyt, 1965).

Dobbid and Turnbull (1965) have identified research gaps and have separated them into those (1) which can be solved most effectively on a nation-wide scale by some agency, foundation, or association, (2) best solved by joint action among colleges of a metropolitan area, a state, or geographical region, and (3) which should be solved by the local colleges. There is some degree of overlap between their list and a similar list by Hoyt (1965). In essence, Hoyt has agreed with Dobbin and Turnbull that different research problems are better dealt with at different levels in the junior college movement.

Types of Research Completed

One of the most comprehensive evaluations studies ever conducted, on the national level, was sponsored by the Carnegie Corporation. The study was planned by a national committee of distinguished members from sociology, psychology, junior college and university education. T. R. McConnell served as committee Chairman and Max Raines was the project Director. The final report, Junior College Student Personnel Programs: Appraisal and Development (also known as the "Carnegie Report"), is available through the American Association of Junior Colleges.

Seven regions of the United States--with a proportional number of small and large junior colleges in each region--were included. The data were gathered through the use of surveys and interviews. Twenty-one basic functions of student personnel services were identified and evaluated on each college surveyed. A rating of "excellent" was found in less than 10% of the colleges for almost every one of the functions; only five of the functions were satisfactorily implemented by two-thirds or more of the participating colleges. It was concluded that, in general, junior college student personnel programs are currently being provided well below a minimally satisfactory level (Hoyt, 1965; Raines, 1965).

Other types of national research studies on junior colleges are those conducted by the American College Testing (ACT) program and the American Council on Education (ACE). Richards and Braskamp (1967), under the auspices of ACT, correlated student body characteristics and factors of institutional environment in 102 two-year colleges. It was found that student characteristics vary with the characteristics of the college environment. They concluded that environmental factor scores are not (and are not intended to be) a substitute for a detailed description of the student body.

Studies conducted on a cooperative state or regional level are rare. One such project, however, was conducted by the Regional Center for the Collection, Synthesis, and Dissemination of Career Information for schools in San Diego County, California (Gerstein, 1966). The project was designed to collect and synthesize occupational information based upon both student and counselor perceptions of which occupational information was of the most value. Materials describing entry employment in San Diego, to be used in counseling, were also prepared.

Local institutional research varies in sophistication from very simple to quite complex. Four examples of local research (Port Huron Junior College) are provided by Browning (1961).

One study was conducted to project an improved image of the Junior College to the citizens it served. The professional people in the county were surveyed to determine which individuals had attended the Junior College. The percentages of professionals who had attended ranged from 3% (doctors) to 38.3% (engineers), for a composite total of 22.7%.

To facilitate the development of the extracurricular program, a second study determined the age distribution of both single and married students. The college does a study each year relative to the educational and occupational backgrounds of the student's parents.

The greatest concentration of classes was scheduled in the morning when a third study found that over 50% of the students were working full or part-time.

A fourth longitudinal study was conducted in order to gain insights into the percentage of students going on to obtain four-year degrees and to determine why some aspirants to the degree were successful while others were not.

Dissemination

"Research" has become a prestige term--one of the magical words of the twentieth century. Research carries a certain aura of intrinsic respectability and anyone engaged in research seems, almost automatically, to be endowed with a scholarly sophistication. It is often true, however, that research tends to become an end in itself. Research is wasted effort and expense if it is not used and it cannot be used if it is not properly disseminated! This is one of the greatest problems.

The major purpose of institutional research is to provide information as a basis of future action (O'Connor, 1965). Thus, the first obligation of the researcher would seem to be the communication of the findings within the college community. The first to receive the findings would be the individual (or group) who initiated or requested the research, but the dissemination should certainly not stop there.

Reporting research findings is not always easy since the faculty may react adversely to actual or implied criticisms. If a good research climate has been fostered, and if tact is used to avoid needless embarrassment, the results of a sound probably will not be relegated to some obscure vault or file. Any administration which allows the results of a sound study to be consigned to oblivion shirks its responsibility (O'Connor, 1965). He also makes the point that the results of some research studies should go to others in the community, especially to citizen advisory committees who might consider solutions to various institutional problems. Finally, the results of certain studies should be announced to future students and to the general public.

> The existence of junior colleges depends on their ability to convince the people of their communities that they are dynamic, educational institutions capable of serving students well. (O'Connor, 1965)

Research findings should be disseminated beyond the local institution and community. The outcomes may provide "food for thought" for other colleges which share some problems (Koch and LaVire, 1967). Russell (1960) states that many institutional research should be published so that the findings can be made generally available.

Until recently, facilities were lacking for collecting and synthesizing the results of institutional research in higher education--particularly in the junior colleges. The Educational Research Information Center (ERIC) has now been established for those purposes. One of the several divisions of ERIC is the Clearinghouse for Junior College Information located at the University of California (Los Angeles). ERIC collects studies done by state agencies, consulting firms, faculty and students, and some journal articles. Its major purpose is to bring the fugitive literature under control; i.e., research studies that are not published nor widely disseminated in any other manner. The Clearinghouse publishes the _Junior College Review_ monthly.

It lists research done in junior colleges and presents methodological critiques and suggestions for strengthening institutional research. This publication is available through the American Association of Junior Colleges.

The Review of Educational Research, published five times yearly by the American Educational Research Association, reports educational research findings and conclusions. It identifies, summarizes, and critically analyses research studies and seeks to synthesize significant findings and conclusions to stimulate further research.

The paper, Higher Education and National Affairs, is published some forty times per year by the American Council on Education. It is designed to keep one abreast of educational developments on the national level. It is quite useful in summarizing reports from the U. S. Office of Education and in presenting information relative to research funding in higher education.

The Chronicle of Higher Education is published bi-weekly through assistance from the Carnegie Corporation. It reports news in higher education, such as foundation activities, state legislation, student actions and opinions, government research policies, enrollment trends, and other areas of concern.

The previously mentioned dissemination resources have greatly facilitated and implemented the distribution of both research findings and general information directly relevant to all of the aspects of higher education. Dissemination of research findings on the local level, however, have fallen behind that found at the national, regional, or state levels. This is particularly true of research in the junior colleges. It remains as a significant and rather serious problem!

Summary

Institutional research attempts to provide accurate and objective information as the bases for decisions which will advance and improve the institution and/or its various programs. Quality institutional research can be conducted only when there is a healthy research climate with support at the state and local levels. The board of control, the administration, faculty and staff must all be involved. It is not a task for only a few individuals. It must, instead, be a group effort, both in terms of many individuals and of many institutions. To have any impact and effectiveness, the results of research must be disseminated, discussed, and utilized or implemented; there is little benefit in research findings that are merely filed or stored.

In discussing the future of institutional research, self-study, evaluation, and follow-ups, Merson (1966) enthusiastically comments that we must strive to make research an integral component of all our activities. He emphasizes that many of the sacred cows of education will be led to the slaughter, if so indicated by the research findings. He concludes, "If we fail to cull out our ineffective practices, there is little reason to conduct our research (Merson, 1966)."

Thus, only as the junior college conducts and uses research can its claims of being innovative and creative be truly substantiated. It is sincerely hoped that such will be the case for the future!

Appendix A

Partial Listing:
U. S. Government Agency Support for Institutional Research

U. S. Office of Education
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare:

Community Service and Continuing Education Program;
Provides state alotments for community service and continuing education centers which conduct research on problems of rural, urban, or suburban areas.

Cooperative Research Program;
Contracts for research, surveys, etc., demonstrating significance to education. Research under this program has been in the areas of learning theory, psychometrics, curriculum and instruction, guidance and counseling, and vocational education. Funds are allocated to provide special support for extensive research in particular educational problems of immediate urgency.

Educational Media Program;
Provides grants-in-aid for research and experimentation in educational uses of radio, television, motion pictures, printed and published materials, and related communications media.

Higher Education Library Services;
Provides, among other things, grants for improving the dissemination of information derived from research.

Vocational and Technical Education Programs;
Funds available to assure quality in vocational education programs, including program evaluation, special demonstration and experimental programs, and development of instructional materials.

Department of Labor:

Office of Manpower and Training;
Funds projects to improve techniques and demonstrate effectiveness of specialized methods in meeting the manpower, employment, and training problems of worker groups, including the long-term unemployed, disadvantaged youth, displaced older workers, the handicapped, members of minority groups, etc. These types of projects would seem to have relevance to urban junior colleges.

Office of Manpower, Automation, and Training;
Especially interested in the problems of technical education.

Office of Economic Opportunity;

The following types of research are funded: analysis of patterns of poverty, including attitudes and motivations of the poor; creation of new ways to attack poverty; evaluation of Office of Economic Opportunity programs, including development of various measures of success. Examples of relevant research might be the development and evaluation of curriculum materials for low-income children, preparation of poor children for college and evaluation of their performance, etc.

Other Federal Sources:

National Science Foundation;

Grants for research are made by the National Science Foundation in a wide variety of areas. The research would tend to be pure or theoretical rather than applied or action research. Certain aspects of junior college research, however, might be funded by this agency depending on the specific problem and situation.

Appendix B

Partial Listing: Major Foundation Supports for Institutional Research

Carnegie Corporation:

Grants are given for studies of critical problems facing American education; the improvement of teaching, and research and training programs in public and international affairs.

Danforth Foundation:

This Foundation has special concern for serving higher education in such area as the preparation of college teachers, religion in higher education, training for citizenship and public responsibility, student-faculty relations, and the liberal arts and related curriculum.

Educational Facilities Laboratory:

Promotes research and experimentation to improve higher educational facilities and to promote the broad dissemination of information regarding higher education through grants and self-administered programs and projects.

Ford Foundation:

The purpose of the Foundation is to advance human welfare by trying to identify the problems of importance to the nation. It provides grants primarily for educational affairs, public and economic affairs, international affairs, overseas development, and the arts and sciences.

Kellogg Foundation:

The Foundation aids programs concerned with the application of knowledge rather than its creation through basic research. The Foundation has seven divisions: Agriculture, Dentistry, Education, Hospitals, Medicine and Public Health, Nursing, and Latin America. The dissemination of research findings might receive support from this Foundation.

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PART II

STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK
IN TECHNICAL INSTITUTES

INTRODUCTION

Albert Erb Leon H. Jepsen

> A free nation can rise no higher than the standard of excellence set in its schools and colleges. Ignorance and illiteracy, unskilled workers and school drop-outs--these and other failures of our educational system breed failures in our social and economic system: delinquency, unemployment, chronic dependence, a waste of human resources, a loss of productive power and purchasing power, and an increase in tax-supported benefits. (John F. Kennedy, Message to Congress, January 29, 1963)

President Kennedy's reasoning and recommendations together with the joint efforts of countless other concerned Americans brought new legislation and a general awareness of the need for more vital vocational education in the United States.

These new programs and institutions must meet the needs of a wide range of people, and prepare the very talented as well as the less talented for successful careers in our highly specialized society. In order to accomplish this they will have to do more than teach the skills that are currently needed on the labor market. Students will have to be attracted to programs in which they can succeed, they will have to be encouraged to persist in these programs, they will have to develop attitudes as well as the skills that will enable them to be successful workmen, and they will have to be placed in jobs in which they cannot only succeed but in which they can grow and be promoted. All of these areas are of special concern to the student personnel workers who will make a vital contribution to the success of students and of the institutions.

Very little articulate material has been published about vocational-technical institutes which shows the vital role the student personnel services play within the total program. Because of this dearth of information the authors hesitate to cite any one institution or block of institutions as a model. Hence, it is our purpose to glean from the literature some general ideas and practices upon which to formulate a philosophy of student personnel work in vocational-technical institutes, and develop a plan for administering student personnel services that is appropriate for vocational-technical schools of all sizes.

STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES IN THE VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL INSTITUTE

Leon N. Jepsen Albert Erb

A Philosophy of Student Personnel Services for Vocational-Technical Schools

A system of services cannot function as a unified whole unless its organization and administration is founded upon an accepted philosophy which provides the goals and rationale for the department's activities. Since student personnel services include all the institution's relations with the student outside of actual classroom instruction, the philosophy must be stated broadly enough to be flexible, yet specific enough to pinpoint the work that needs to be done.

The following philosophy has been modeled upon the classic statement, "The Student Personnel Point of View (1949)."

Student personnel services in vocational-technical schools hold a point of view which:

1. considers each student to be a unique individual who is to be treated as a personality functioning and reacting to his environment as he perceives it.
2. appraises the student as a responsible participant in his own development and believes that every effort must be made to encourage him to assume the responsibility for his own growth and development.
3. appreciates that the student's ability to benefit from the classroom and shop experiences is dependent upon

the extent to which the institution provides essential out-of-class services.

In terms of the student personnel point of view, the following services are viewed as essential. It is therefore the responsibility of the staff of the student personnel services to organize services and activities that:

1. orient students to the educational setting.
    - a. interpret institutional objectives and opportunities to each potential student and to the community at large
    - b. permit students to enroll only in programs in which they can succeed and from which they can be placed in jobs
2. provide each student with opportunities to acquire skills and techniques for the utilization of his abilities through remedial courses, if needed.
3. furnish students with a sense of belonging.
    - a. respect his rights
    - b. appreciate his value as a person
    - c. secure his co-operation in the recognition and solution of the institution's problems
4. promote the student's understanding and acceptance of good health practices and safe work procedures.
5. promote each student's self-understanding.
    - a. provide adequate testing and appropriate test interpretation

    b. provide counseling for self-understanding
    c. maintain adequate records
    d. furnish specialized information that will assist him in making necessary choices
6. assist the student toward understanding of money management and self-control of financial resources.
    a. inform and assist him in securing needed financial assistance so that he can stay in school
    b. develop self-knowledge or understanding of how to manage one's income
7. provide for progress toward appropriate vocational goals.
    a. furnish information about opportunities and requirements
    b. provide assistance in making application for existing positions for which he is qualified
    c. promote the development of a curriculum that is based on the needs of workers for entry jobs and eventual promotion to better jobs
    d. offer counseling for decision-making
8. promote understanding of individual responsibility for choices and acceptance of the consequences of these choices.
9. promote understanding of moral and ethical considerations and encourage self-discovery of the meaning of life.

10. prepare students for satisfying, constructive post-institutional life.
    a. develop attitudes that will enable each to successfully practice his occupation and progress in his career
    b. encourage each to live in harmony with others and to serve his community and his fellow man

It seems appropriate to conclude with the observation that the only criterion by which the vocational-technical institute can be evaluated is the extent to which it meets the needs of its students.

Who Attends Vocational-Technical Institutes?

The public vocational-technical institute is usually so organized that it offers a wide range of courses or programs, all of which are aimed at providing students with skills and experiences that will enable them to become fully employed in positions in which they can succeed. The various courses or programs seek a wide range of aptitudes and interests with the result that, for all practical purposes, the institute can offer a meaningful course to virtually all interested, potential students, to the end that an open-door admissions policy is effected.

This does not mean that anyone can enter any program, but instead that the institute has an obligation to assist each potential student in finding a program in which he can succeed and from which he can be placed in a job that will utilize his competencies.

The Vocational Educational Act of 1963 encourages the establishment of programs to meet the vocational needs of secondary school youths, post-secondary youths, dropouts, individuals who are currently employed but who have competencies that can be further developed through training, and individuals who have academic, socio-economic, or other handicaps.

The personal characteristics of vocational-technical institute students will vary with institutions and with the kinds of programs each offers, as well as the kind of community the institution serves (Graney, 1964; Venn, 1964). The student body of most public vocational-technical schools will include men and women who, though they are well beyond the normal college age, are seeking education and skills that will enable them to be employed again or to qualify for a better position than the one they presently hold (Venn, 1964). But, young people also attend. Some bring excellent high school records, which will enable them to enter the more intellectually demanding technical programs. Others will range from average to below average high school students, and some of the students will bring less than high school preparation and will quite likely need an opportunity to acquire basic skills which are prerequisites for many of the programs. Some of the technical institutes will offer courses for high school students who will be in the institute for only part of the day, spending the balance of the school day with their peers in their high school.

In spite of this diversity of preparation, the students are unified, to a large extent, by their purpose for attending. They see the institute as a means toward a specific goal; it may be as one technical school counselor said, "They plug in, get what they want, then plug out and never return." (We would hope that they would feel a desire to return after graduation, but there is no question but that they come to get what they want.) We know they haven't come for football and fellowship, nor because coming was the "socially-acceptable thing to do." They have come to learn a saleable skill.

The only universal characteristic which these vocational-technical institute students possess is that their goal is a job, a good wage, and some economic security. They are probably best described as "specialty-oriented students," a phrase which K. B. Hoyt (1962) defines:

> The specialty-oriented student is one whose motivations toward educational achievement are built largely around a desire to acquire a specific occupational skill or set of skills. Courses designed to broaden his potential for avocational living have little or no appeal to this student. He may be described as expressing relatively more interest in being "trained" rather than in being "educated."

because of these attitudes, the vocational-technical institute student does not resist the institute's efforts to cultivate a workman-like attitude. When it encourages him to be prompt, have good attendance and safety records, and to go about his duties in a business-like manner, he can accept that development of such personal habits will influence his later success. He sees relevance in this kind of learning.

This kind of student demands relevance. Historically education has not concerned itself with relevance, but in the vocational-technical institute, this most pragmatic of educational institutions, relevance must be a fundamental goal. If this job-oriented student is permitted to feel that his time and money is being wasted--that he is expected to take meaningless courses and perform other rituals just because someone has decided that he must do this, then he will be out of school, and on the labor market long before he has completed the program for which he enrolled.

There is one other important consideration. The more mature student has family responsibilities. The younger student will tend to come from a working-class home. The cost of attending the institute may prove to be a hardship upon both the student and his family, which often necessitates the student's working during his out-of-school hours and in trying to keep his school costs to a minimum. Student personnel workers in vocational-technical institutes must never forget that both time and cost considerations will greatly influence the student's participation in out-of-class activities.

The wide range of ages, interests, and aptitudes, as well as the out-of-school obligations of students, complicates the development of co-curricular activities that will be of interest and meaningful to all students. The vocational-technical student, nevertheless, has needs similar to all other students, and student personnel services, including student activities must be organized to provide for them.

Organization of Student Personnel Services

In his report on the Carnegie Study, Collins (1967) recommends a functional organization of student personnel services which seems an appropriate model for organization in vocational-technical schools. In this organizational structure we find six administrative divisions, each headed by a professionally trained student personnel specialist. Nevertheless, it would be only reasonable for smaller schools to combine two or more divisions under the leadership of one professional, at least until such time as the number of students justifies the separation of divisions. One caution, board of control and chief administrators should remember that good intentions and nice sounding statements of goals and purposes do little for students. Collins (1967) states:

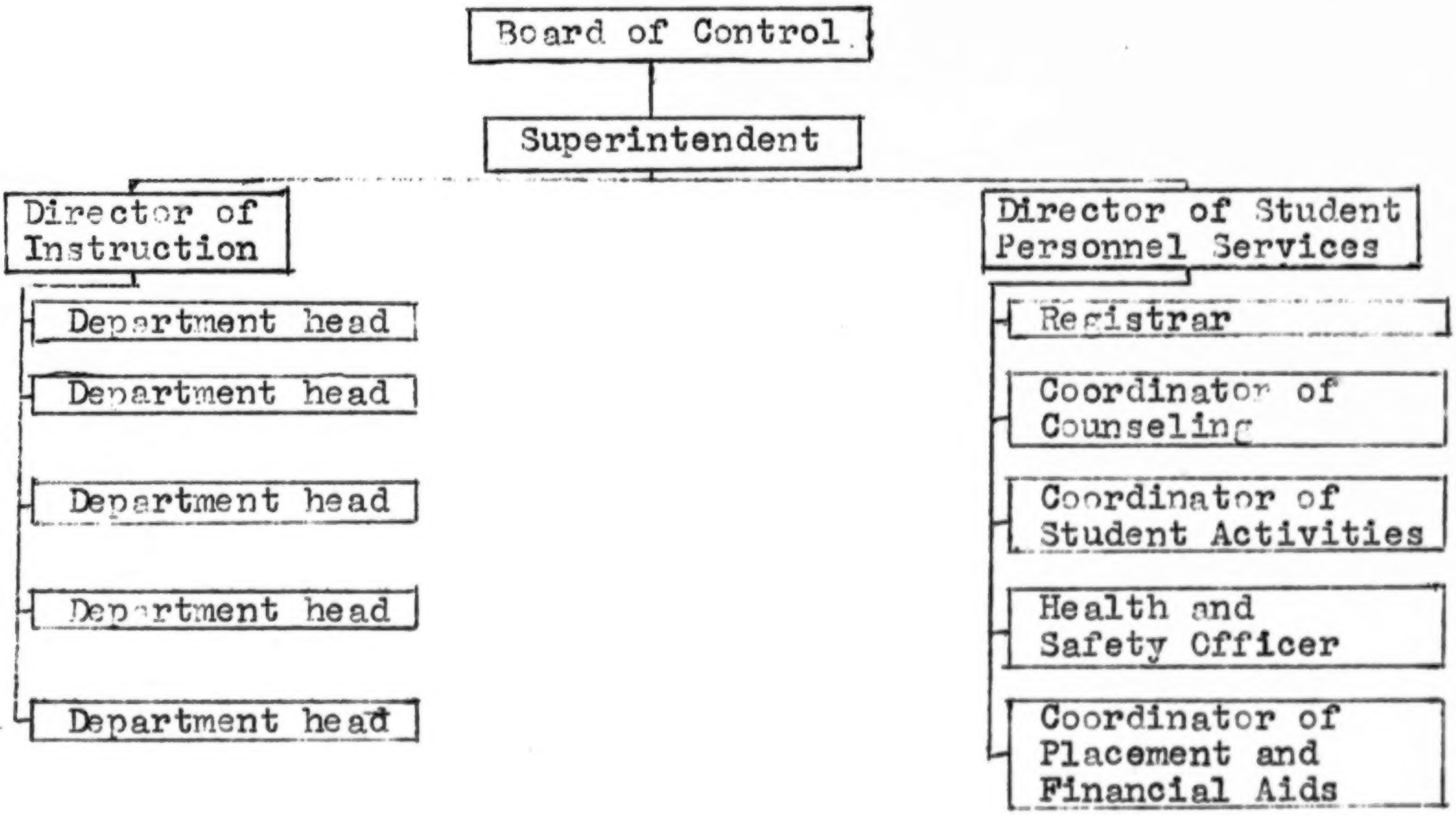
> Functions are performed by staff members. If the institution provides the staff members, the functions will be performed; if not, they will not be performed. If the institution provides professional staff members, the functions are likely to be professionally performed; if not, they probably will not be.

The six departments may best be described by the major departmental concern and the department heads by titles commonly used in vocational-technical schools. The departments are: the Department of Admissions, Registration and Records which is administered by the Registrar, the Department of

Guidance and Counseling which is under the leadership of the Coordinator of Counseling, the Department of Student Activities which is administered by the Coordinator of Student Activities, the Department of Health and Safety which is under the leadership of the Health and Safety Officer, and the Department of Placement and Financial Aids which is administered by a Coordinator of Placement and Financial Aids. The sixth department is that of Student Personnel Administration which is administered by the Director of Student Personnel Services who generally answers directly to the chief administrative officer of the school, hereafter referred to as the superintendent.

The administrative heads of the other five departments answer to the Director of Student Personnel Services, and all five are viewed as having equal status or rank.

The organization of student personnel services in vocational-technical schools, so organized, might be charted as shown below.


Board of Control
Superintendent
Director of Instruction
Department head
Department head
Department head
Department head
Department head
Director of Student Personnel Services
Registrar
Coordinator of Counseling
Coordinator of Student Activities
Health and Safety Officer
Coordinator of Placement and Financial Aids

Administration

The Director of Student Personnel Services should have a minimum of a master's degree with a strong academic preparation in student personnel work and should have had experience in all facets of the personnel program of a vocational-technical school. He is immediately responsible to the superintendent for his own office and for the five student personnel departments under his direction and supervision.

This office has four primary functions. These are: program articulation, in-service education, program evaluation, and administrative organization.

The Program Articulation Function. Primarily, the goal is to achieve a team approach. Lowe (1962) has stated a rationale for this approach.

> While no one mind can hold all the potentially useful information, a "team mind" may. Only through the team approach may we bring the most advanced scientific knowledge and procedures to bear on a problem or develop new procedures which are more effective in approaching a problem than any which heretofore have been available. Specialists who hold a "separate department" concept may be unaware of one or more aspects of the problem and hence have an incomplete picture of their own program.

This team approach includes not only the student personnel service departments, but should be extended to include the appointment of student personnel staff members to faculty committees, and promoting staff liaison with high school counselors.

The In-Service Education Function. It is the duty of the

Director of Student Personnel Services to organize a systematic program of in-service training for both his professional and clerical staff. He is also responsible for supervising and directing the student personnel services staff, arranging for bringing in consultants as needed, and encouraging staff participation in professional organizations.

The Program-Evaluation Function. It is the responsibility of the Director of Student Personnel Services to utilize the personnel and facilities of his departments to collect facts that will enable the institution to make decisions in curriculum development and program evaluation.

The Director directs and coordinates experimental projects, local institutional research, and institutional cooperation in regional, state, and national research projects. He also is responsible for all follow-up studies of former students.

The Function of Administrative Organization. Each institution must develop its own organizational pattern based on the unique characteristics of the institution--its setting, facilities, programs, and staff. It is the responsibility of the Director of Student Personnel Services to develop job descriptions and to organize the services so that the responsibilities of each are defined. The ultimate result should be a "team mind" approach to the larger responsibility of providing services to students and to the institution.

The Director of Student Personnel Services is also responsible for identifying staffing needs, preparing the budget for student personnel services, and interpreting these to the Superintendent.

Admissions, Registration and Records

The administrative head of this unit, the Registrar, should have a master's degree in student personnel with additional work in data processing, research design, and educational testing. He is directly responsible to the Director of Student Personnel Services and serves in a staff relationship with the other four student personnel officers.

The five discrete functions of this department demand not only this professional training and experience, but also close cooperation between this department and the other student personnel officers. These functions not only fit together in a logical sequence, but also make a significant contribution to the effectiveness of all student personnel functions and the effectiveness of the school.

The Pre-entrance Information Function. "Pressures from parents, fellow students, and from high school teachers and counselors motivate thousands of high school youngsters to elect the academic program when their interests and abilities actually lie in more practical fields (Harris, 1964)."

The recruitment function can be stated briefly as assisting potential students in seeing the vocational-technical school as offering opportunities that may make it the best educational program for them. But, more specifically, this function is performed by: (1) meeting with groups of students in high schools,

(2) preparing and distributing brochures which describe educational offerings, estimated cost, and application procedures, (3) handling all inquiries about attending the school and ascertaining that potential students are referred to appropriate personnel for answers to questions that reside in other offices (example: financial aids, eligibility for vocational rehabilitation services, etc.), (4) conducting "Open houses" and seeing that these are widely advertised, and (5) meeting with parents and other interested adults to explain the school and the opportunities it offers.

The Application Appraisal and Testing Function.

> Students' occupational choices are the most important decisions of their lives. An organized admissions procedure that provides clear-cut admissions policies, standards, procedures and early testing and acceptance dates enable prospective students to approach area schools with more certainty of and pride in their vocational choices. A successful admissions program is manned by a knowledgeable professional...who knows what he is doing and why he is doing it (Bottoms, Aug., 1966).

Specifically, there are five sub-factions:

(1) Establishing clear-cut admission policies. This must be done by an admissions committee, composed of the administration, teachers, and student personnel workers. This committee's policies should be based upon evidence that certain criteria is essential for success in the various programs. Any deviation from the established policy should be approved by the committee.

(2) Evaluating the applicant's previous academic work. This is for the purpose of determining whether or not the applicant has acquired sufficient background for the program being considered.

(3) Selecting and developing appropriate testing instruments.

The selection of tests that will satisfy institutional needs is a professional judgement based upon a sound background in test construction and use.

(4) Administering tests to prospective students. The testing procedures should be standardized so that the test results of one student can be directly compared with the results of students who took the test at a different time.

(5) Developing normative and predictive data. Failure to develop local norms and norms for different courses or programs can only result in less than maximum effectiveness of testing. When a potential student can understand how his results compare with those of students in the several courses or programs, he can then make intelligent decisions regarding his choice of program.

The Personnel Records Function. "The philosophy of the institution is reflected in the quality of records which it maintains (Bottoms, Dec., 1966)."

The records function includes:

(1) Developing a meaningful integrated records system. Such a system will achieve thoroughness, accuracy, quality, simplicity, and coordination in developing and maintaining permanent and temporary student records that will serve the needs of the students, the faculty, the student personnel staff, and the administration of the school (Bottoms, Dec., 1966).

(2) Establishing and implementing policies regarding record accessability. Although the student's interests must be protected,

needed records must be made available to the students themselves, student personnel workers, faculty, and school administrators. The AAUP statement (Committees, 1965) has application to vocational-technical schools, as well as academic institutions. It is as follows:

> Student Records. Institutions should have a carefully considered policy as to the information which should be part of a student's permanent educational record and as to the conditions of its disclosure. To minimize the risk of improper disclosure, academic and disciplinary records should be separate, and the conditions of access to each should be set forth in an explicit policy statement. Transcripts of academic records should contain only information about academic status. Data from disciplinary and counseling files should not be available to unauthorized persons on campus or to any person off campus except for the most compelling reasons. No records should be kept which reflect the political activities or beliefs of students. Provision should also be made for periodic routine destruction of noncurrent disciplinary records. Administrative staff and student personnel officers should respect contidential information about students which they acquire in the course of their work (p. 148).

(3) Conducting research on student characteristics and interpreting these to the institution. The admission requirements should be constantly re-evaluated to make certain that they are accomplishing their objectives. Systematic research will reveal the adequacy of standards. The use of the research findings will contribute much to the establishment of admissions policies that will admit students capable of success in educational programs and in the occupation they pursue.

The Student Registration Function. "Registration is the orderly, efficient means of enrolling a student for a particular course of study for a certain period of time. The registration

process should be as simple as possible (Bottoms, Aug., 1966)."
The registration function includes

(1) Developing procedures and necessary forms

(a) The registration form should be brief and contain needed information not obtained on other admission program forms.

(b) Personnel should be assigned to specific tasks. (The Registrar and Director of Student Personnel Services should be free to handle problems as they arise.)

(c) The physical facilities for registration should be clearly designated so that each enrollee will know each step to take in the registration process.

(d) Each staff member involved in the registration process should evaluate the entire procedure and make recommendations on how future registrations can be improved.

(2) Processing class changes and withdrawals

Furnishing the instructors with class lists is a logical outcome of registration. However, registration should be viewed as a continuous process which includes late registration, assisting students in transferring to other courses, and checking with all students leaving school.

(3) Projecting institution and class enrollment

It is a function of the Registrar to maintain records that will enable the chief school administrator to ascertain staffing and space needs.

The Academic Regulation Function. The Registrar, having all preadmission and testing data and all reports of student progress within the institution, is best qualified to advise the faculty and administration on academic and admissions policies.

It is also his task to interpret the catalog or bulletin to students, to determine each student's eligibility for graduation, and to present pertinent information to appropriate authorities in questions on probation and disqualification.

Guidance and Counseling

The Coordinator of Guidance and Counseling "should be at or near the doctoral level of training in counseling psychology and should be qualified by both training and experience to provide supervision and in-service training to the professional counselors (Collins, 1967)." He is directly responsible to the Director of Student Personnel Services, and has equal status with the administrators of the other four subordinate student personnel units.

The goals of the Department of Guidance and Counseling are largely those of all other student personnel services. This department views counseling as a "voluntary process which lends assistance to those making personal adjustments and seeking better self-understanding and self-direction (Shaffer and Martinson, 1966)." The department also sees guidance as a system of services designed to assist students in utilizing the services that are available to them, to the end that their school experience will make a maximum contribution to the achievement of their personal goals.

This department has four major student personnel functions:

The Applicant Consulting Function. All applicants should receive counseling. Counseling often brings to light factors that radically affect a seemingly normal situation. During admission the counselors should assist the applicant in examining the following types of questions: (a) Why do you want to attend this school? (b) Why do you want to enroll in the course you have selected? (c) What do you plan to do after you leave school? These questions should challenge the student to think deeper about his choices and enable him to focus clearly on his reasons for attending the school and his projected goals. The students who understand why they have elected to attend the vocational-technical schools will make better students (Bottoms, Aug., 1966).

This function involves:

(1) interpreting test results to applicants.

Much of the potential value of educational testing is lost because of inadequate test interpretation. Students should be furnished not only a verbal interpretation of the test results, but a copy of the test results presented in a graphic form that will be meaningful to them.

(2) explaining curricular requirements.

Students need to know that curricular requirements (such as class prerequisites) have not been arbitrarily established, but instead are based on evidence that the individuals likelihood for success is small if these requirements are not satisfied.

(3) assisting students in selecting courses.

> "There is a need for aiding each applicant enrolling in the vocational-technical school to systematically appraise his abilities and characteristics in terms of the programs offered by the school. This can be accomplished by using the following five categories of information about the student: test data, educational background, personal characteristics, physical characteristics, and work history.

This information should be used in such a way that the student is assisted in looking at what he can do in the school rather that what he cannot do (Bottoms, Aug., 1966)."

Advisement and Counseling Function. Professionally trained student-centered counselors are avilable to all students to assist them with such matters as "change of program, adjustment to the school, evaluation of personal assets and liabilities in relation to meeting requirements of a future opportunity, learning problems, home or living problems, financial needs, advanced education, recreational needs and opportunities, emotional problems, and personal-social problems such as dating, engagement, marriage, and family (L.B. Hoyt, 1967)."

Strong emphasis should be focused on occupational or career counseling. This is a continuous process that should be avilable to students at all times and should aid the student in seeking an attainable career. Counseling also provides assistance to students who are considering a change of occupational choice at any time during their education.

Every effort should be made to facilitate students' making appointments and seeing counselors when they feel a need to do so.

The Group Orientation Function. Orientation to collegiate level institutions has been defined as "assisting students in acquiring techniques of living in college, in achieving a beneficial balance among all the demands and opportunities... and in gaining perspective and a sense of purpose (Wrenn, 1951)."

Some institutions set aside a day or two for orientation before classes begin. However, there is evidence that orientation can be more effective if it is viewed as a continuing process and is organized as a required class for credit which meets regularly for at least the first term of the school year.

Orientation classes should be conducted by counselors. These classes should be aimed at assisting the student in acquiring techniques, achieving balance, and gaining perspective.

The following outline sets forth the units which should be included in the required orientation class.

1. Purposes of the institution
    a. History, including how and why the institution was established and how it is supported
    b. The philosophy of the institution and its rules and regulations
    c. How the institution is organized to achieve its goals, and who is responsible for each department or function
    d. The student's role in the institution: his rights and responsibilities
2. Services and facilities of the institution and what they offer
    a. Health services
    b. Co-curricular activities and recreational programs
    c. Counseling services
    d. Placement services
    e. Remedial services
    f. Financial aids
3. Self-understanding
    a. Interests and aptitudes

    b. Appraisal of basic skills as they relate to training and work

    c. Positive mental health including peer group relationships, student-teacher relationships, and freedom and responsibility

4. The world of work

    a. Elementary business organization

    b. Role and function of workers--the range of work opportunities

    c. Entry occupations and access to better positions

5. Job placement

    a. How to locate job possibilities using various resources--including the school's placement office

    b. How to write a résumé and use it effectively

    c. How to write effective letters of application

    d. How to fill out an application form

    e. How to evaluate a company

    f. Being interviewed and evaluating a position

    g. How to follow up an interview

    h. How to conduct yourself on the new job

Remedial Services. "There would be no need for remedial services in higher education if admissions procedures selected only the students who were fully qualified for all courses and who had no remedial defects. There is no technical institute, however, where enrollment is so limited. When students have academic or other difficulties of a remedial nature, there is a choice between letting the student drop out and providing special help for him. Few institutes would fail to provide such special help within the limits of their capacity (Smith and Lipsett, 1956)."

One area which is likely to require assistance for students is reading. The fact that a student has graduated from high school unfortunately does not mean that he is an accomplished reader. This also could be said of mathematics. "Passing certain high school subjects does not guarantee ability to cope with technical institute mathematics courses (Smith and Lipsett, 1956)." Once these problems are identified they can be handled with special classes or by scheduling students in such a manner that they can receive some individual instruction from the regular teaching faculty.

Smith and Lipsett (1956) state that "if the principle is accepted that a technical institute should provide each enrollee with the services necessary to enable him to reach the objectives of his program, the following steps are indicated:

1. Provide selection procedures which eliminate students for whom the institute is unable or unwilling to furnish all necessary services.
2. Set up procedures for identification of problems which may require special assistance.
3. Provide whatever services are indicated by the problems which are identified. This may require the advice of various professional specialists."

Student Activities

The Coordinator of Student Activities should be a professionally trained student personnel worker, who answers directly to the Director of Student Personnel Services and has a close working relationship with the other student personnel services departments. The nature of his responsibilities and the scope of his work may lead to viewing the Coordinator of Student Activities as the Director's second in command. In small vocational-technical schools, the Director of Student Personnel Services may logically assume the duties of this department.

Eddy (1959) gives a rationale for student activities on college campuses:

> An all too common conception of a college education is that it includes only the narrowly defined academic process involving just the teacher and the students. Many college graduates agree, however, that their education took place as much outside the classroom as within its narrow walls, and was as much a result of all that surrounded them as of the formal lecture and seminar. Some refer to this larger, encompassing classroom as "the climate of the campus." We call it the environment. But, no matter what term is used, we identify it as a factor of paramount significance in the development of character.

The same rationale is appropriate for student activities programs in vocational-technical schools. Perhaps, here is an even greater need for establishing a social climate and providing organized activities. The student activities programs should be aimed at the development of social skills and facilitating the formation of character traits, which enable the graduate to work and live successfully in a rapidly changing social structure.

Too often vocational-technical schools neglect this phase of education. They may justify their doing so with any of several rationalizations such as: "Most of our students live at home." "Most of our students have part time jobs." "Most of our students want only the classes." or, "We don't have the facilities." Nevertheless, Muller (1961) offers sound arguments that are valid for vocational-technical students.

> The programs may seem superficial and unacademic but they actually have a strong therapeutic value, not only because they absorb the energies and high spirits in harmless, if not actually profitable, avenues but also because they build morale and cause divergent personalities to coalesce and build an espirit de corps which invests the collegiate way of life with its strongest emotional and spiritual values.

Student activities in vocational-technical schools includes student self government, co-curricular activities, social regulation, and food and housing. Each of these is viewed in the following manner.

The Student Self-Government Function. Students can make a vital contribution to institutional decision making. Not only are they concerned but they can present a view of the various aspects of the institution that is not readily apparent to the faculty and the administration. Perhaps an even more important result of student involvement is student awareness of the interactions which are necessary to maintain the institution, the institutional concerns for student needs, and the consequences of irresponsible behavior on the part of some students.

The coordinator of student activities is responsible for advising the student government. This requires not only that he is a consultant but that he promotes responsible involvement of students in institutional decision making.

The coordinator is responsible for conducting leadership classes. Vocational-technical institutes need effective student leadership, yet they rarely attract the people who were the student leaders in high school. As a result, students must be assisted to become responsible leaders. Returning students must be trained to help new students, and students elected to leadership positions must be assisted in assuming their responsibilities effectively.

The coordinator is responsible for supervising elections and student conferences. It is the responsibility of the coordinator to promote involvement and interaction in elections and conferences. Nevertheless, he may be viewed as "walking a tight-rope" in that he dare not get himself in the position where he could be accused of using the students to promote favorite causes. Instead, he must be an impartial authority in supervising elections and a concerned advisor in assisting students to understand their roles and consequences of their actions.

The Co-curricular Activities Function. Co-curricular activities should grow out of classroom experiences and felt needs of students. Therefore, the coordinator of student activities does not impose activities, but instead works with teachers and students in planning a varied program and encourages student involvement in significant projects. The coordinator is also responsible for the supervising of student activities, assisting in budgeting for student activities, and bringing about an evaluation of the worth of the various activities.

The Social Regulation Function. Student self-government will naturally and justifiably concern itself with social regulations. The coordinator of student activities must work with the administration and students in developing policies that cover all social activities. His office must maintain a social calendar and make arrangements for facilities.

While the handling of student conduct will probably be a concern of student personnel services, the philosophy should always be that of prevention. The student personnel services should strive to make the student aware of his responsibilities. "The student must be responsible for his own behavior, and disciplinary action ought to be of an educational value (Gibson, 1964)." It is the authors' position that the coordinator is responsible for handling cases of social misconduct.

Food and Housing. In a commuting student body, meal time is a reasonable time for many student activities. A food program can also contribute much, not only to student health and morale, but to the inculcating of social graces and attitudes.

The coordinator of student activities should also be responsible for carrying out the school's housing policies. This office should assist students in finding housing and should handle decisions concerned with approved housing. The coordinator should also be aware of students who are not living at home, because their needs might be found to be quite different from those of commuting students.

Health and Safety

Student health and safety is a legitimate concern of vocational technical institutes and should logically be viewed as a part of student personnel services.

It is common practice for vocational-technical schools to provide first aid services, to expect instructors to teach safe working procedures, and to offer a low-cost group health insurance to students because each of these activities are viewed as important if students are to be assisted in succeeding in school and later in their chosen occupations. Too often these services and activities lack continuity with the result that students don't always know what services are available, and the school's efforts to teach healthful, safe living are not very effective.

The size and setting of the vocational-technical school will determine the amount of coordination and direction this facet of student personnel services will require. In smaller schools, providing this department's leadership may become an additional task of the Director of Student Personnel Services or of one of his professional subordinates, whereas in larger institutions this role may well be filled by a full time professional health officer who has medical training.

Using the theoretical constructs of Smith and Lipsett (1957), this department is viewed as being responsible for the following essential functions:

1. Advising the admissions committee on the physical and mental health capabilities of applicants.

2. Identification of physical characteristics or health problems of each admissible student which may be remedied or improved during the student's stay at the institute and

advising the instructors and counselors of physical limitations of any student which may influence his achievement or may present emergency situations for which the staff should be prepared

3. Providing emergency treatment for illnesses and injuries of students and a follow-up procedure that will assure appropriate medical treatment

4. Taking positive steps to improve the health and well-being of students. This department should provide leadership in providing constant in-service education for the entire staff relative to effective teaching of safe and healthy living and working

5. Maintaining a sanitary environment, including taking measures designed to prevent health problems

6. Selecting a group insurance plan that will provide interested students with low-cost medical insurance

A minimum staff for any institute will consist of a registered nurse who is on duty all the time when the school is in operation and at least a part-time professional student personnel worker to coordinate and direct the department's activities.

Financial Aids and Placement

This office should serve and be closely related to both the department of guidance and counseling and the department of student activities. The Coordinator of Financial Aids and Placement should have a master's degree in either guidance and counseling or student personnel services. "Placement and financial aid require intimate knowledge of and close contact with the community; hence wide experience in business or industry should also be prerequisite (Collins, 1967)."

The rationale for bringing these two very diverse functions together in one office can be stated quite simply: they are both service functions which demand a degree of business orientation on the part of the office, and the very nature of the services brings a peak demand for the one function when the other is minimized.

The Financial Aids Function. The granting of student financial aid should be centralized regardless of the size of the institution. Shaffer and Martinson (1966) state: "Experience has clearly demonstrated that institutional responsibilities and the needs of the individual cannot be met when a variety of personnel and other offices act independently of each other under inconsistent and contradictory policies."

Policies and procedures for institutions will vary, but the following guiding principles developed by College Scholarship Service (1962) are as pertinent for vocational-technical institutes as they are for the 500 colleges involved in developing this list.

1. The primary purpose of a college's financial aid program should be to provide financial assistance to students who, without such aid, would be unable to attend the college.

2. Financial assistance consists of scholarships, loans, and employment, which may be offered to students singly or in various combinations.

3. The family of a student is to make a maximum effort to assist the student with college expenses. Financial assistance from colleges and other sources should be viewed only as supplementary to the efforts of the family.

4. In selecting students with need to receive financial assistance, the college should place primary emphasis upon their academic achievement, character, and future promise.

5. The total amount of financial assistance offered a student by a college and by other sources should not exceed the amount he needs.

6. In determining the extent of a student's financial need, the college should take into account the financial support which may be expected from the income, assets, and other resources of the parents and the student.

7. In estimating the amount that a student's family can provide for college expenses, the college should consider the factors that affect a family's financial strength; current income, assets, number of dependents, other educational expenses, debts, retirement needs. In addition, it should consider such special problems as those confronting widows and families in which both parents work.

8. A student who needs financial aid should provide a reasonable part of the total amount required to meet college costs by accepting employment, or a loan, or both. Acceptance of a loan, however, should not be considered by the college as a pre-requisite to the award of a scholarship or job.

9. Because the amount of financial assistance awarded usually reflects the financial situation of the student's family, a public announcement of the amount by the college is undesirable.

10. Consultation between colleges on the kind and amount of financial assistance to be offered a mutual candidate should be encourages, since this assures relatively equal aid offers to the student, making it possible for him to choose a college on educational rather than financial grounds. This benefits both the student and the college.

11. The college should clearly state the total yearly cost of attendance and should outline for each student seeking assistance an estimate of his financial need.

12. The college should review its financial assistance awards annually and adjust them if necessary in type and amount to reflect changes in the financial needs of students and the cost of attending the institution, as well as to carry out the college's clearly stated policies on upper-class renewals.

13. The college itself should make every effort, and should cooperate with schools and other colleges, to encourage college attendance by all able students.

14. The college should strive, through its publications and other communications, to provide schools, parents and students with factual information about its aid opportunities, programs, and practices.

Vocational-technical institutes are not justified in neglecting the development of an effective financial aids program. If the institution exists to serve students, then it must make every effort to assist students in overcoming economic barriers that would otherwise keep them from getting the education and training that they need.

The Placement Function. Effective placement not only serves the students, it vitally affects the development of the school. Through an effective job placement program the school can meet its responsibility for broadening the range of opportunities offered to its graduates and therefore project a positive image of the school to potential employers. By assisting graduates to explore a wide range of possible jobs, the school brings together the right employers and students and insures that most of its graduates perform satisfactorily. Almost every student who leaves school has the potential of being successful if placed in an appropriate job. A job placement program takes advantage of this potential and insures more satisfaction among both employers and alumni. These positive attitudes, of employers and alumni, communicate to the general public a positive image of the school, an image created not by works alone but by the actual achievements of graduates. Such communication to the community is important because successful and satisfied graduates are the school's greatest asset for attracting prospective students and community support. A positive image can be projected through an adequate job placement program which enlarges the opportunities for area school graduates and thereby increases the probability of satisfactory employment (Bottoms, 1967).

Harris (1964) provides guidelines for the operation of a placement office.

1. Centralize placement activities in a placement office under the direction of a trained placement official.

2. Encourage placement efforts by faculty and staff in a planned and orderly manner, but with coordination of the total effort in the placement office.

3. Dedicate the efforts of the placement office to the real job--career placement. If budget and staff permit, the service of casual placement may be rendered to students, but avoid letting "the tail wag the dog."

4. Conduct an energetic and continuous campaign of information about the placement office until every business, industry, and agency in the region knows of its existence and purpose.

5. Cooperate with and enlist the assistance of local employment agencies, both public and private.

6. Keep records on students and job openings current--if not day by day, at least week by week.

7. Match students to jobs so that mutual satisfaction (employer-employee) will result. The reputation of

the placement office, and indeed, the reputation of the college's occupational education program depends on the integrity and skill of placement personnel in this regard.

8. Prepare the student for his job interview. Get him ready to face his prospective employer by "training" him in the placement office.

9. Appoint a director of placement who will get out into the community and locate job openings like a trained reporter sniffs a news story. An "office recluse" waiting for the telephone to ring will not be very effective.

10. Make use of all the citizens' advisory committees in the placement effort. An annual "advisory committee night" in the spring (dinner, program, visits to regular classes and laboratories which have been moved to an evening hour for "advisory committee night") is often extremely productive.

11. Make placement important on campus. Use bulletin boards, display racks, photographs of former students at work on their jobs, feature articles in the campus newspaper. Bring last year's graduates back occasionally to talk to freshman orientation sections about their education at the college and their work on the job. Get the local city and county newspapers to run articles on graduates working at interesting jobs.

Placement and follow-up should be inseparable. Harris (1964) states a follow-up procedure: "Exit interviews should be held with each student just before graduation (or completion of his program) and the follow-up process should be initiated at that time." In this interview the reasons why the institution desires to follow up on its graduates should be explained, and a permanent address should be obtained. Samples of the follow-up questionnaires which he might receive during the next year or two should be shown and explained to the student.

In soliciting information from the graduates themselves, one, two, or three years after graduation, such data as the following might be requested:

1. Starting salary and record of increases
2. Promotions received, and paths to further advancement
3. Actual demands of the job with respect to mathematics, physics, technical specialty knowledge, and background in general education
4. Working conditions: Hourly pay, or salaried? Working in research, design, production, maintenance, or testing?
5. Relationship to professional persons on the job, and also to craftsmen and trade-level workers
6. Opinion on education and training received at the college--was it excellent, adequate, or inadequate?
7. Suggestions for improvement of certain phases of the college program: in the technical specialty courses: in the supporting science and mathematics courses: in the general education courses: in guidance, counseling, and placement services

Employers should also be surveyed. "Questionnaires sent to employers could solicit much the same information as that expected from the graduate himself, but the instrument would be organized differently. Personal interviews with employers should be held occasionally to explore in depth certain matters which can only be touched on lightly in a quesionnaire survey (Harris, 1964)."

This information could possibly be used for the purposes of counseling, recruitment, and/or program evaluation.

It cannot be stated too emphatically that the placement function may well decide the success or failure of a technical institute. It is obvious that if an institute cannot place the people it trains then it is hard pressed to justify its existence.

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PART III

A STUDY OF DISCIPLINARY PHILOSOPHY
AND
FACULTY ADVISING

A STUDY OF DISCIPLINARY PHILOSOPHY

Lawrence Rhodes

Research of the literature has revealed only limited articles, bulletins, books, and studies reflecting institutional philosophy of discipline. There is a conspicuous absence of objectively stated philosophy; that which exist is bound up in policy and procedures. It has been necessary, therefore, to draw upon literature dealing with various college and university policies and procedures in an effort to determine disciplinary philosophy in higher education.

Educators have studied with considerable zeal the various influences that bear upon the educational process and upon forces which motivate students toward success in college. The large number of students enrolled in college reflects a changing pattern in American society which makes it possible for most citizens to have a college education. Due to the relative ease of attending college, more and more students no longer regard attendance at college as a privilege but as a right. This may, in part, account for a greater tendency than ever before to bring questions of disciplinary procedures among colleges before the courts. (Brady and Snoxell, 1964) As policies and procedures are attacked in the courts, on the basis of unfair decisions, lack of legal process, and invasion of civil rights, philosophy will likely change to reflect court rulings. (Kaiser, 1967)

The formation of a functional philosophical position is complicated by diverse interpretations of misconduct. Students, parents, college student personnel workers, and faculty members interpret misbehavior and adjudge resultant disciplinary action differently according to a study conducted on the University of Wisconsin campus. (Hubbell, 1966) Students, parents, faculty, and staff were asked to read ten detailed incidents of misbehavior that had happened recently on the campus. An attempt was made to choose specific incidents of alleged misbehavior of a moderately serious nature. Each respondent made a choice from five possible disciplinary actions: nonjurisdiction, verbal warning, disciplinary probation, suspension, or expulsion. The study indicated that attitudes toward the treatment of college student misconduct varied significantly. Student personnel staff were most lenient in both estimates of university action and their own choices of disciplinary action. Students felt that the university had been the strictest possible. Parents chose the strictest disciplinary action. The majority of the responses were different from and more lenient than the original university actions.

Sillers and Feder (1964) examined variations in attitudes toward offences among four key administrators: the president, a male and a female disciplinary officer, and an academic dean, from each of nine institutions. On two seperate occasions, subjects ranked each of seven actual disciplinary offenses for types of information to be investigated and for types of action to be taken. The subjects responded first by questionnaire and again two weeks later in an hour long taped interview. They found that male disciplinary officers were significantly more consistent in their decisions than were the other three groups. The investigators concluded that while institutional personnel may tend to hold similar views of the seriousness of a situation, they tend to differ in their approach to the problem.

Historically, the concept of in loco parentis has characterized institutional philosophy. More recent experience, however, has found it to be a legal, not an operational concept, nor is it a practical way of evaluating college-student relationships. While the concept of in loco parentis has been assumed by many public colleges, from the practical point of view it has not proven to be a well functioning view. Strickland (1966) has observed, "American law probably never imposed a duty, nor conferred a right, on colleges to supervise the general morals of students except where college discipline and educational performance were involved; and if it did, custom and law have changed." The relationship of the university and its students differs in many ways from that of parents and students. Penney (1967) states,

> (1) The nature of the university contract with students, is a unilateral agreement; students may withdraw at any time with or without cause. The institution cannot terminate the relationship except for cause.
>
> (2) A second example is the acceptance by the university of what amounts to an ethical obligation to provide students with reasonable explanations of institutional policies and procedures. Indeed, students are moving in the direction of helping establish policies and procedures.
>
> (3) A final example is the commitment of the university to the operation of disciplinary procedures on a due process basis, even though private institutions probably are not obligated to do so.

A recent influence on institutional philosophy has been a statement of the American Civil Liberties Union entitled, "Academic Freedom and Civil Liberties of Students," written in 1961. A review of the document indicates that the college-student relationship is more than a civil liberties, contractual engagement. The civil liberties view is essentially a passive one; it is designed to permit the individual's potential to develop. The ACLU document intends that students are not to be evaluated arbitrarily, that differences in students will be disregarded in pursuit of the ideal of equality under the law.

Historically, courts have made a significant distinction between private and public colleges. Public institutions have been viewed as extensions of the general state governments and have been subject to the same mandates in dealing with citizens: to observe cannon of due process, to refrain from unwarranted searches, to refrain from undue restrictions on freedom of expression, etc. The dearth of cases applicable to private institutions leaves unanswered many questions concerning rights, privileges, and obligations of such institutions. (Elton and Rose, 1966)

REVIEW OF INSTITUTIONAL PHILOSOPHY

As a practical consideration, the philosophy of three institutions was examined. The college catalogue, student handbook, and other available information of each institution was examined to determine a philosophy toward discipline. In the absence of a stated philosophy per se, an attempt was made to consider policy, goals, and purpose of the colleges on matters related to discipline. Because of the subjectivity involved in arriving at a philosophical position and the possibility of misstating the institution, the following colleges remain anonymous and are identified only as College "A" (Experimentalist), College "B" (Religious-Restrictive), and College "C" (Pragmatist).

College "A" (Experimentalist)

Community government prevails on the campus of College "A". There has never been student government on the campus. Supervising and administering the community is held to be a community affair. Faculty and students are equally represented in the community senate and are elected to their office. The senate alone can formulate community rules, although the college president and the Board of Trustees maintain veto power. Students hold primary responsibility for deciding honor cases. An all-student Judicial Board investigates complaints and recommends action to the senate. A college official recently stated,

> "The question has been raised: with a resident student body of varied origins, in a time when there is not a common code of conduct that distinguishes the educated man, can we still go on the ideal assumption that students can supervise their own personal affairs? Older residential colleges have been protected by their customs and traditions. We have no internal machinery sanctified by custom and tradition to determine our behavior. But we do have a principle of honor and a conviction that consensus can solve our problems in an environment of mutual confidence. What goes on at --- is noteworthy because it still has confidence in the ideals with which it started out (in 1911)."

The honor principle prevails in all phasas of campus life; it is defined as, "the positive responsibility of every member of the community to act at all times with consideration for the rights and comfort of others."

The honor principle is established and maintained on the assumption that members of the "A" community have the maturity and awareness of the demands of social living necessary to maintain ethical standards of conduct. Violation of accepted standards of conduct is brought to the attention of the Judicial Board for review and is known as an honor case.

An honor case is not a legal trial. It is a review of an individual's relationship with his community, a review made necessary by an act which the Judicial Board judges in the context of a student's relationship to the community. Two kinds of behavior are considered anti-social and therefore in violation of the honor principle:

(1) conduct which causes embarassment, discomfort or injury to other individuals or to the community as a whole;

(2) conduct in violation of specific rules that have been developed over the years to meet special conditions in the community.

The community maintains a minimal rule structure which has been established to meet special conditions among its constituency. As members of the community confront rules which they consider to be unwise, unjust or unnecessary, it is incumbent upon those individuals to seek to change such rules through the legislative process established under community government.

College "A" operates under the philosophy that when a rule loses its supporting character and becomes predominantly restrictive, it should be, and usually is, modified. In accordance with the honor principle, the Community Senate entrusts much of the enforcement responsibilities to the individual, his fellow students, and faculty members. In the majority of cases, an observed of an infraction may deem it wise to attempt to handle the case through direct discussion with the violator. Such discussion is held to be quite appropriate, but one is also encouraged to discuss the case with the student body president or student senators in order to gain a better perspective. Thus, the community members will usually report a violation to the Judicial Board. Rules violations known to be deliberate should always be reported to the Judicial Board. The Judicial Board, therefore, remains the central focus of responsibility for the enforcement of the honor principle.

College "A" has three specific aims in handling a formal honor case:

(1) the safety and welfare of individuals and of the community as a whole;

(2) the education of the alleged honor violator so that whatever were his motives for acting in an anti-social manner, he will not be likely to do so again;

(3) by means of publication of the facts of the case and the action taken (with the exception of the names of the people involved) to make clear to the community what the senate feels to be legitimate interpretations of the implicit norms and established rules of the community. The institution holds that performance of the third function is hampered by excessive reliance of informal, private settlement of disputes.

As occasions arise in which it is deemed advisable to administer discipline, the positive, educative, approach is taken. For example, if a student is found using, possessing, or selling drugs, "the incident will be handled as a counseling problem, as a potential violation of the honor principle, or both, as the circumstances of such cases warrant." If a student is convicted of doing damage to any building on campus, he is fined to the extent of the damage. The purpose of such fines are to defray the cost of replacing damages, and are not punitive in nature.

In summary, the honor principle is considered by college "A" to be both an important phase of the educative process and the simplest and most desirable device for maintaining law and order. The honor principle seeks to increase the freedom of action of the individual at the same time that it seeks to develop a heightened sense of social responsibility. It is intended to direct, rather than prohibit; it is seen as an integral phase of the educative process. The keystone of the philosophy is that the maturation of the individual is best furthered by allowing him to do his own thinking, rather than by stuffing him with predigested ideas.

College "B" (Religious - Restrictive)

College "B", as a Christian institution, is committed to an integration of Biblical Christianity with the liberal arts and sciences, an integration relevant to one's personal life, to classroom disciplines, to co-curricular activities and to societal experience in general. Therefore, the purpose of College "B" is designed to encompass the total life of its constituency.

A stated goal is, "to provide a liberal education that introduces one to all organized fields of learning, while stressing a Christian theistic view of the world, of man, and of man's culture, in the belief that the Holy Scriptures are a revelation from God which enables one to understand and evaluate that which is learned of various subjects."

In keeping with its objectives, College "B" requires that members of its academic community observe certain behavioral norms which, although placing limitations on individuals, help to create an atmosphere conducive to the achievement of institutional purposes. The college further holds that general principles of Christian behavior, such as observance of the moral law of God, are explicitly taught in the Scriptures and provide a standard of behavior for all Christians. Students, therefore, are responsible for "exhibiting Christian conduct, based on principles taught in the scriptures, which will result in the glorification of God, the edification of the church and their own growth in grace."

The philosophical views of College "B" are further identified by the following standards of conduct: refraining from the possession or use of alcoholic beverages and tobacco, from gambling and the use of traditional playing cards, from social dancing, and from participation in oath-bound secret societies. The college further expects students to exercise Christian discretion and restraint in the choice of entertainment, including television, radio, movies, theater and various forms of literature.

Disciplinary authority and responsibility is delegated by the President to the Dean of Students and his staff. The Dean has great flexibility in the disposition of student discipline. At the discretion of the Dean of Students, he may administer discipline or refer cases to the Student Affairs Committee, the Student Conduct Committee of the Student Council or to the Residence Hall Standards Boards and Conduct Committees. The Student Conduct Committee hears only those cases referred to it by the Dean of Students. After hearing and discussing cases, the Committee decides or recommends the best course of action for helping the individuals involved. Another function of the Committee is to make recommendations to the college concerning policy changes which affect student life and conduct. Any decisions of the Committee may be appealed to the Student Affairs Committee. In all cases, students are given the right to a hearing with representation if desired. Students have the right to appeal disciplinary actions through established procedures. The student is notified in writing of the disciplinary action imposed or of dismissal of the case.

The college follows the suggested practice in recording and reporting disciplinary actions recommended by ACCRAO, ACPA, NAWDC, and NASPA. Records of disciplinary action recorded in the Student Personnel Office are retained in a confidental file to which only the Dean of Students and his staff have access. No permanent notation is made on the student's transcript of disciplinary action.

In summary, the college states, "that any behavior, either on campus or away, which indicates that a student has little desire to live a life honoring God or whose conduct gives any evidence of disregard for the spirit of the college standards, would be sufficient reason to ask him to withdraw."

Students are under the jurisdiction of the college during weekends while school is in session and are responsible for their behavior while away from campus. The institution clearly required that members of its academic community observe certain behavioral norms which, although placing limitations on students and faculty, help to create an atmosphere conducive to the achievement of institutional purposes. Each student and faculty member clearly understands the college position regarding religion and morals prior to their association with it. Once a member of the academic community, it is understood that each individual will honor the established philosophy.

College "C" (Pragmatist)

Attendance at College "C" is not an unqualified right but brings with it responsibility for certain standards of conduct in keeping with institutional philosophy. It is expected that students will conduct themselves in accordance with regulations of the college and such laws of the city, state, and federal governments as apply to matters of personal conduct.

Discipline is the primary responsibility of the Dean of Students, although he may delegate the responsibility. Student judicial boards are formed to handle certain areas of disciplinary conduct cases; they are encouraged to accept as much responsibility for student self-discipline as they are capable and willing to handle. If student boards fail to function, staff advisors must take action.

The basic philosophy of discipline at college "C" can best be stated by repeating principles underlying disciplinary action.

> "Two principles underlie the disciplinary efforts here at ---. These apply whether disciplinary action is being administered by the Dean of Students' central staff or by a judicial body. The first principle is that the disciplinary action is aimed primarily at assisting the individual involved to redirect his behavior and energies along acceptable lines. The second principle is that every effort is made to encourage students themselves to assume responsibility for their own discipline and behavior."

In deciding conduct cases, emphasis is placed on consideration of individual cases rather than attempting to have matching penalties for specific cases. In an effort to assure students of fairness, due process is carefully observed and every student has the right to appeal the action of administrative officers or lower judicial boards to the Student-Faculty Conduct Committee. Such committee is composed of six members of the faculty appointed by the President and six students chosen by the Student Body President. In all cases, students have a right to request a statement of charges against them. Students may be present when the evidence against them is presented to the appeal committee. Further, they may have witnesses appear in their defense and may introduce additional evidence. The Student-Faculty Conduct Committee has supreme authority in arriving at decisions in any action or to overrule any previous action.

An effort is put forth to insure a fair hearing for students rather than placing the emphasis upon elaborate codes of conduct because of the individual nature of discipline. By insuring due process, the chances for arbitrary and authoritarian action by an administrator or by student groups are reduced.

In summary, discipline is considered necessary and effective only for the benefit of learning to an individual student and for protection of the campus community. The latter must be considered in order that a large number of students may live together with consideration for one another. An effort is made to avoid automatic action for violation of rules, regulations, or conduct. Action taken is in relationship to the seriousness of the violation. Due process and the right of appeal are held to be an inherent right of students involved in disciplinary action. Disciplinary procedure is designed to educate individuals as to the importance of their behavior and the ethics of group living.

SUMMARY

Every institution is faced with diverse opinions regarding disciplinary policy and procedures. There needs to be a framework within which to structure the philosophical position. The following suggests a general framework for institutional-student relationship as proposed by Penney (1967):

> (1) Obligations and expectations are clearly delineated in terms of who is to do what and when, who is empowered to act in what ways, what presumably will happen if obligations are not fulfilled.
>
> (2) Those regulations that exist are conveniently available, concisely stated, openly discussed, and readily interpreted.
>
> (3) The rule of parsomony prevails in regard to the quantity of regulation. The interest is in as little restraint of restriction as is reasonably compatible with the maintenance of an operating social order. Additionally, there will be in effect few if any regulations that will not be largely self-enforcing in the hands of men of good will. The natural consequences of failure to comply will be self-evident and thus serve as sufficiently directing in most cases.
>
> (4) Relationships are open to what, in the political realm, have recently been called "unlimited negotiation" but which might better be phrased as continuous dialogue in the areas of institutional and individual objectives, rights, freedoms, and responsibilities.
>
> (5) Institutional initiative is directed to enhancing active discussion of mutual freedoms and intra-institutional relationships.

Such guideline suggest that institutions may function in ways that are educative, enlightened, and liberating. Educators should be able to demonstrate that administration of discipline is a vital part of the educational process and that institutions are competent in administering it. The fact that subgroups may have dissimilar views of discipline is important. To the extent that judgments of students, parents, personnel workers, and faculty vary from decisions of the disciplinary committee, either new approaches should be taken or more effective measures should be established to communicate disciplinary philosophy and rationale.

The trend continues toward an examination of institutional practices, being prompted b student rebellion which often results in court intervention. Diverse views as to the role of institutional responsibility and implementation of policy have promoted the negotiation of sub-groups on college campuses. The practice of including student opinion and services in policy formation and enforcement of conduct codes prevails on many campuses. The nature and extent of regulations vary with the fundamental purpose of the institution, whether it be public or private. There is a danger of defying traditional codes of discipline on the basis of having been established by the forefathers and having served past generations. Traditionalism is rapidly giving way to modern, representative government among the constituency of many college communities.

Rules are constantly being examined and as they lose their supporting character, legislation is introduced to modify them.

More and more, the establishment and perpetuation of institutional philosophy as it pertains to discipline is being predicated upon acceptance of students as mature individuals who are capable of meeting the demands of social living within the college environment. However, each college will be concerned with establishing disciplinary policy in relationship to the broad purpose of the institution, whether it be public or private. An effort should be made to present the philosophy in a concise manner and distribution of the code of conduct should be thorough so that no student is left guessing. The underlying consideration of disciplinary functions should be educative in nature and should be designed to enhance the image of students as responsible citizens in an academic community.

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FACULTY ADVISING

D. Casey

This paper is concerned with faculty advising conducted by personnel other than those specificly trained and experienced in student personnel work. Faculty advising is not to be confused with counseling, a service performed by counselors trained in appropriate counselor training institutions and with practicum experience included as a part of that training. Although it has been necessary, in order to remain consistant with authors and authorities cited, to use the more inappropriate term in some instances, it will be clear from the context when faculty activities are being referred to.

One writer, (Raines, 1964) as a result of an intensified research project, and in collaboration with a great number of student personnel workers throughout the continental United States, developed an inventory of selected college functions. The functions were developed in recognition of the needs of junior college students. Student advising is one of the functions listed in this research, providing significant support for faculty advising. The student advisory function is cited here to aid in clarification and definition of faculty advising. Moreover, it will provide us with a central point, as a number of other viewpoints are presented dealing with the breadth of responsibilities that are assigned to faculty advisors.

> The Student Advisory Function: Those activities of the college designed to bring each student into individual and continuing contact with a college staff member qualified to advise the student regarding such matters as (1) selection of courses for which the student is eligible and which are consistent with his curricular choice as well as any occupational or senior college preferences he may have, (2) evaluation of academic progress, (3) effective methods of study, and (4) identification of specific resources within the college or community that might meet the special needs of the student.

Some studies reveal the responsibility of the faculty in advising as narrower in scope than the functions developed by Raines. In an attempt to arrive at guidelines for an adequate student personnel program, Yoder and Beals (1966) studied a number of junior colleges in the Western U.S. On the basis of the criteria which they had established, the responsibility of faculty members was restricted to provide educational advising in their field.

Medsker (1963) in a study of 73 institutions found that they all tended to classify formal advisement as an important aspect of their programs, although there was a wide range of thought as to what properly was advisement. Medsker writes: "In many colleges the view prevailed that when a student could be assisted in arranging a program of classes which met his personal desires, and also met requirements of transfer to a senior college, the major task of counseling had been fulfilled".

The assignment of a narrower scope of responsibility for faculty advisors may be due to conclusions that faculty advisors do not communicate well with students or that their training for broader responsibilities of advising is too limited (Starr 1960), (Griffin 1960), (Eaton 1961).

In a study of faculty personnel policies in New York State Community Colleges, (Hamm 1965) it was reported that a number of faculty weaknesses existed. Lack of understanding of philosophy and purposes of the community college was listed, as was the lack of proficiency in counseling students. In his conclusions, the author cited the need for better communication of faculty with the student personnel department, concerning the purpose and activities of the guidance and counseling staff, and the related responsibilities of instructors in student affairs.

If, as the studies above imply, the faculty is not equipped and does not offer meaningful advisement, outside of superficial dispensing of information within a very narrow academic specialty, grave implications are faced by the student personnel staff. Either the student personnel staff must fill the void created by the lack of necessary attention to student needs, or the student personnel staff must implement a program to insure that the academic staff can become enthusiastic and capable of filling that void. Further review of the literature reveals, however, that in some institutions, under some circumstances, the faculty can and does provide very comprehensive attention to student needs. At Fasion Institute of Technology (a two year college in the State University of New York) not only are all faculty members assigned advisees, but most of the administration as well. (Daniels & Kierman 1965) The scope of responsibility is described as falling into three areas; academic, psychological, and socio-cultural. No formal training in counseling is provided for personnel at F.I.T. The authors write: "At F.I.T. faculty counseling is not an inappropriate, dislocative role for the faculty member, but a natural adjunct to responsible faculty performance.

There is further evidence of faculty contribution in student advisement in a study concerned with discovering college characteristics over which the student personnel worker might exercise control. Wellner (1966) found more effective learning environments in those junior colleges which used faculty advising programs. It was also learned that the improved environment existed where colleges provided in-service training for the faculty advisors. Among the recommendations of Wellner were that student personnel workers should seek actively to involve the faculty in decisions regarding that area of the student personnel program in which they participate, and to enlarge this area. Further, it was recommended that student personnel workers should utilize faculty advisors and provide these persons with in-service training which expands their role and competencies to involve more than clerical tasks of assigning classes or signing programs.

Faculty responsibility for a broad range of advisement responsibilities is echoed by a college English instructor (Meyers 1964). He writes: "Small groups of freshmen should be assigned to each teacher for counseling. This counseling should involve the freshman in all his college experiences: academic, social, employment, religious, housing, and others which he may find he cannot handle by himself." Meyers further writes: "Teachers in the freshman program should receive counseling training. This training should be at the expense of the college and should be an on-going in-service program where new techniques are developed and used. First rate counselors should instruct teachers on group and individual counseling procedures."

Some writers in discussing the breadth of responsibility that should be assumed by the faculty, go beyond the activities proposed by Raines and cited earlier in this paper. McDaniel (1962) states that some special responsibilities of instruction (as opposed to personnel and administration) are: "to keep close contact with career outlets in subject fields and to fill the role of expert resource persons." and "To give accurate information about the career outlets of each course." The same writer in a related vein states that a further responsibility of instruction is: "to exemplify the purposes of the college, to interpret these purposes to the students..." Another writer, holding a more encompassing viewpoint with regard to faculty advising is Hardee (1962a). She presents faculty advising as "tri-dimensional activity, consisting of: 1) discerning the purposes of the institution, 2) perceiving the purposes of the student learner, 3) postulating the possibilities for the student as a learner and promoting these as means are available." Hardee clarifies the responsibilities of the first activity as requiring knowledge of institutional aims, knowledge of content of individual courses, and methods of their teaching. She writes that advisors will seek to learn the climate of learning that exists in the institution, and stresses that the faculty advisor should look to the professional counseling staff for assistance.

It is evident at this point that contrasting positions exist with regard to the range of responsibility that should be assumed by the academic faculty. The studies presented by Medsker, Starr, Hamm and others, give a rather pessimistic outlook with regard to the usefulness of a faculty advisement program. On the other hand, the reports by Daniels & Kerrman, Wellner, and Meyers provide evidence of substantial contributions of faculty advisors. Hardee and McDaniel are enthusiastic about the potential for student help that may reside in good faculty advisement programs. The writer is in agreement with the latter authorities in their enthusiasm for the potential that can evolve from well planned faculty advisement programs. It is further held, that the extent to which the faculty can become a potent and viable source of student aid is directly proportionate to the energy, direction and enthusiasm that is provided by the student personnel staff.

Drawing upon some of the studies and opinions presented in this paper, a schema is presented which may provide the starting point from which an adequate faculty advising program could develop.

Specific Responsibilities of the Advisor	Development of Advisor Competency	Resources of The Advisor
To have knowledge of the course offerings of his own institution.	Largely the advisor learns this on his own initiative, studying the resources, and remaining alert to changes in course offerings which usually are reported during routine staff meetings and in departmental bulletins. Meetings or workshops initiated by the student personnel staff, for the purpose of articulating information from department chairmen.	The college catalog brochures, departmental handouts.
To have knowledge of the levels of difficulty of the courses, the prerequisits, and the logical sequences of courses in his own institution.	Independent study by the advisor of the catalogs and course outlines. Staff meetings which may be initiated by the student personnel staff, in which department chairmen and instructors present information and clarify areas of misunderstanding.	The college catalog, department chairman, instructors, course outlines.
To have knowledge of the more common academic and vocational goals of the students who enroll in his institution.	Study of the available research, especially that which has been developed and designed for use of the faculty, by the student personnel staff. In-service training provided by the student personnel staff.	Research studies of the student personnel office, records of the registrar, independent research studies. Seminars and informal discussion with students and former students.

Specific Responsibilities Assigned to the Advisor	Development of Advisor Competency	Resources of the Advisor
To have knowledge of those courses or sequences of courses that provide the most logical and beneficial background, or fulfill the requirements for the goals of students. In other words, learn the usual routes taken in reaching the various goals.	Study by individual advisors of all published data available, especially that which has been summarized and condensed by the student personnel department for their use. Attend meetings arranged for the articulation of this information. Advisors encouraged to learn from personnel working in academic and vocational settings to which local students are oriented. In-service training provided by the student personnel staff.	College catalogs, departmental studies and publications, research summaries of requirements of transfer institutions. Business and industry leaders, registrars and counselors from transfer institutions, local counselors, departmental chairmen.
To have knowledge of the specific requirements and idiosyncrasies of those more common transfer institutions to which your students go, with regard to prerequisites and acceptability of specific courses and curriculums of your own institution. In other words, learn how the route may deviate as the goals of the students are reached in specific institutions.	Same as above	Departmental guides from specific departments of transfer institutions. Locally prepared outlines of curriculums which have been found to be acceptable to each of a number of transfer institutions. Bulletins, pertinent correspondence and memos from transfer institutions.

Specific Responsibilities Assigned to the Advisor	Development of Advisor Competency	Resources of the Advisor
To have knowledge of the acceptability, or appropriateness of courses offered in your curriculum as they relate to each of the industries, businesses, or occupational groups to which the larger share of your non-academic students are oriented. In other words, learn how the route toward vocational readiness may deviate as specific vocations in specific environments are considered.	Same as above Meet with former students who have entered these vocations, either in groups or individually, study their opinions and evaluations of the experiences which were offered while in school. Student personnel staff may initiate such meetings.	Representatives of various occupational groups, personnel representatives from businesses and industries. Labor union representatives, studies and follow-up questionaires of former students. Departmental chairmen, students and former students.
Learn specific resources within the college and community which may satisfy particular interests or needs. Develop ways of motivating students to seek out these specialized services and opportunities.	Participation in school and community activities helps. Student personnel staff provides assistance in developing teachniques that may be used to motivate students to seek out these resources.	Community newspaper. School newspaper and other school publications. The student personnel staff. Specialists on the staff.

Evaluation of student progress and effective methods of study are two important areas of responsibility mentioned previously in this paper. Another important responsibility is for advisors to learn about their own advisees. Meyers and Hardee have especially emphasized this. These important areas of responsibility have not been incorporated into the schema. It is the position of the writer that these and other important skills can evolve easily and naturally where a good working relationship exists between faculty and student personnel, especially in those institutions where faculty is willing to work hard to learn, and the student personnel staff is actively interested in being of assistance to the faculty.

The essentials presented are intended only as the very basic and perhaps the most accessable goals for the beginnings of an effective advising program. The long range goal in the junior college must be a complete integration of student personnel program and instructional program. The integration can come about when there exists in an educational institution knowledgeable, responsible, and energetic student personnel workers and academic faculty.

Although we may not find as much evidence today as we would like, of the integration of student personnel programs and instructional programs, we can share Hardee's opinion (1961b) "that the most effective thrust toward integration of student personnel services and instructional programs has come about through the initiation and implementation of programs of organized faculty advising."

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